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ABSTRACT

North Carolina's community colleges recently went through a reengineering process and a conversion from a quarter to a semester system--the result of several studies as well as a mandate by the North Carolina State Legislature. With these changes came review, restructuring, and a degree of standardization of all curriculum programs. Department chairs had significant responsibility for the changes. This study examines the transformational leadership behaviors of exceptional department chairs in North Carolina community colleges during this period of change, while determining the level of agreement between the department chair and his or her faculty members as to the chair's leadership style. Each of the state's 58 community colleges was invited to nominate one or two department chairs for the study. The population for the study consisted of 32 department chairs, identified by administrators as being exceptional leaders, from 26 colleges. Results indicated that department chairs who lead significant change: (1) are perceived as being highly ethical; (2) possess good people skills and use them to influence and empower faculty; (3) are good implementers of change; (4) have confidence in their leadership abilities; (5) develop individual relationships with their faculty members in order to carry out the work of the department; and (6) pay particular attention to the organizational dynamics that can affect leadership. (Contains 23 tables, 4 figures, and 62 references.) (NB)

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TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AT THE DEPARTMENT CHAIR LEVEL IN NORTH CAROLINA COMMUNITY COLLEGES

by

PHILIP ROBBINS LEFTWICH

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of:
North Carolina State University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

LEFTWICH, PHILIP ROBBINS. Transformational Leadership at the Department Chair Level in North Carolina Community Colleges. (Under the direction of John Pettitt and George A. Baker, III)

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the transformational leadership styles of North Carolina community college department chairpersons seen by their instructional administrators as being outstanding in leading their departments through a significant change event. Community college presidents and chief instructional administrators were asked to nominate department chairpersons who had done an outstanding job of leading their departments through a statewide reengineering of programs and conversion to a semester system. The survey method was used to assess both the department chairs' self-perceptions and their faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' transformational leadership behavior. These perceptions were then compared to determine if significant differences existed between chairs and faculty. Comparisons were made both overall and by institutional size.

There were no significant differences between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' transformational leadership attributes for the intuitive, influence, people, and motivation components of transformational leadership measured by the MCLQ-III survey instrument. Of the five transformational leadership attributes measured by the MCLQ-III, the ethical component was the highest rated self-perceived factor by department chairs regardless of institution size. Faculty also perceived their department chairs to be highly ethical, but did not rate their chairs as highly as the chairs rated themselves.

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Significant differences existed between the mean ratings of faculty and department chairs for the ethical cluster both at small institutions and all colleges in general. There was no significant difference noted at larger colleges.

This study identified several important aspects of transformational leadership at the departmental level in community colleges. Department chairs who lead significant change: 1) are perceived as being highly ethical, 2) possess good people skills and use them to influence and empower faculty, 3) are good implementers of change, but do not necessarily perceive themselves as initiators of organizational change, 4) have confidence in their leadership abilities, 5) develop individual relationships with their faculty members in order to carry out the work of the department, and 6) pay particular attention to the organizational dynamics that can affect leadership.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated in honor of my mother, Janie Allison Leftwich, and in memory of my father, Rodney Lycurgus Leftwich, who served as sources of inspiration throughout my doctoral studies. It is primarily due to their support and encouragement that I was able to complete the requirements for the degree. They believed in the value of education and they believed in me. For this, I will be ever grateful.

BIOGRAPHY

Philip Robbins Leftwich was born and grew up in Western North Carolina. Following graduation from Cullowhee High School, he attended Appalachian State University for a time and worked in professional sales. He returned to college at Western Carolina University and earned a Bachelor of Science Degree in Business Administration with a major in Marketing. After graduating in December of 1980, he held positions with the Better Business Bureau and North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service. While employed full-time, he attended the University of North Carolina at Charlotte where he earned a Masters of Business Administration Degree in 1987. That same year, he began his career in community college education as Instructor of Business Administration at Mitchell Community College in Statesville, North Carolina. At MCC he progressed to the position of Coordinator of Business Programs. In 1996 he accepted a position as Chairperson for the Business Administration Department at Asheville-Buncombe Technical Community College in Asheville, North Carolina. In this position, he is responsible for program development and leadership of faculty in the areas of accounting, business administration, customer service, marketing and retailing, operations management, quality technology, real estate, and real estate appraisal. He is also currently serving as Chairperson of the College's Institutional Effectiveness Council. He and his daughter, Margaret Anne Leftwich, reside in Waynesville, North Carolina.

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Chapter One

Introduction

Daft (1999) stated that the outcome of leadership is change. "Change always brings dislocation and discomfort" (p. 424), but is essential because the world today is changing more rapidly than ever before. "Organizations must poise themselves to change, not only to prosper, but to survive" (p.425). According to Dessler (1995) "good leadership is more important than it has ever been before, because it is the leader who must initiate change, and provide a unifying vision" (p. 365).

Nahavandi (1997) stated, "the presence of leaders often assumes some form of hierarchy within a group" (p. 4). In a community college, formal instructional leadership positions exist at hierarchical levels ranging from the president down to the department chairperson. The president is at the top of the college hierarchy while the department chairperson is at the top of a departmental hierarchy.

The department chairperson in a community college is in a unique position to facilitate needed change. Departments are subjected to many pressures for change both from within and outside the institution. "The chairperson's role in bringing about needed change can be central in determining whether change is indeed desirable, in planning for change, and in providing leadership in the process of implementing change" (Tucker, 1992, pp. 73-74). Lucas (1994) referred to academic departments as the "building blocks" of a college. She stated that, "how well the necessary changes are developed and implemented will depend heavily on the leadership ability of department chairs" (p. 5). Tucker went even further in identifying the critical importance of the department chair. He stated, "a brilliant . . . college administration with inept chairpersons cannot survive;

an inept administration, with the help of a group of brilliant chairpersons, usually can" (p. 32).

Community colleges in North Carolina have recently undergone significant change with the implementation of a statewide plan for reengineering programs and the simultaneous conversion from a quarter system of credits to a semester system of credits. The reengineering plan was the result of several studies as well as legislative mandates by the North Carolina State Legislature. The framework for the reengineering plan had strong curricular implications for the individual community colleges and the system. The components of the plan included: a new program review process, a review of program titles, the development of a statewide common course library, and the development of a regional program planning/approval process (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995). Semester conversion for North Carolina community colleges had been discussed for several years. The requirement for development of the common course library spurred the Department of Community Colleges (January 30, 1995) to recommend conversion to the semester system concurrently with the reengineering initiative so that the work of redesigning courses would not occur twice.

With the reengineering and semester conversion, which went into effect with the fall semester of 1997, came the review, restructuring, a degree of standardization of all curriculum programs, and a great amount of change in community colleges statewide. This required strong leadership at all levels. Department chairs were affected in terms of leading faculty through planning, implementing, and evaluating curriculum programs.

Department chairs, typically, have significant responsibility for programmatic changes. In a study of department chairs by Tucker (1992) "updating curriculum courses

and programs" was identified in the top ten responsibilities of department chairs at both community colleges and universities. Tucker identified twenty-eight possible roles that chairpersons assume to some degree at one time or another. The following roles clearly have a place in leading programmatic changes: teacher, researcher, leader, planner, manager, delegator, representer, communicator, evaluator, supervisor, coordinator, innovator, organizer, decision maker, problem solver, implementor, facilitator, and entrepreneur.

Tucker (1992) listed the following functions that department chairs need to be able to perform to bring about needed change:

- Provide guidance to the faculty in developing and updating department goals and objectives.
- Assess local, regional, and national needs for education services provided by the department.
- Develop action plans for the needed changes.
- Implement action plans for the needed changes. (pp. 80-81)

Waltzer (1975) supported the department chair's role in programming. He identified academic affairs as one of the major responsibilities of department chairs. This included establishing degree programs and curricula; evaluating and improving programs, curricula, and the quality of instruction; enforcing academic standards; and preparing term schedules of courses. All of these functions and responsibilities point to the role of the department chair in leading programming efforts.

While department chairs usually influence curricular decisions, they are not usually in positions to make these decisions unilaterally (Tucker, 1992). Curriculum changes are often the responsibility of the faculty who are almost always involved in making these decisions. "Generally, responsibility for whatever is taught in the department is delegated to subject or course coordinators" (Moses & Roe, 1990, p. 99).

This may be particularly true for community colleges because "community college divisions . . . usually contain several different and perhaps unrelated programs taught by faculty members with diverse backgrounds" (Tucker, p. 35).

Tucker (1992) stated that "the chair's responsibility is to test for the curriculum's relevance" (p. 371). He identified the chair's principal role in relation to curriculum as one of properly using feedback from all sources to assure that the existing curriculum is maintained, updated, and efficiently and effectively managed. He noted that the chair is in a position to ask important questions about the curriculum and to gather information that may impact how the faculty thinks about needed changes.

Background

Community colleges and other institutions of higher education across the country are facing increasing pressures to be accountable for their product and to the public. "The public seems to believe that college faculty are not productive enough, do not work hard enough on behalf of students, and are not interested in teaching" (Lucas, 1994, p. 4). A new priority is being placed on collective responsibility and faculty leadership as stakeholders such as trustees, legislators, accrediting associations, and faculty call for greater accountability toward the institution (Lucas, 1994).

The system of community colleges in North Carolina grew very rapidly following its establishment in 1963. Each of the 58 institutions had operated with a great deal of autonomy. Consequently, the Community College System had received criticism from the legislature and the general public with regards to the variance in courses offered across community colleges. According to System Associate Vice President for Planning and Research, J. K. Brown (personal communication, September 25, 1998), a lack of

commonality in required courses made it more difficult for a student to transfer from one community college to another than it was for the student to transfer from a community college to a university. He also stated that the great diversity in courses made it difficult to develop any type of statewide transfer articulation agreements.

The efficiency of the governance and structure of the community college system was initially questioned in the 1992 Government Performance Audit Committee (GPAC) report (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995). Regionalization became an issue as the report drew attention to the number of campuses in the system, their proximity to each other, and the number of curriculum program offerings in the system.

The 1993 State Legislature directed the State Board of Community Colleges to conduct a comprehensive study of the mission of the system (Ferrell, 1993).

> The study is to cover the structure of the system (including service areas, consolidations, and distribution of facilities and programs), development of a regional structure for the system, guidelines for multi-campus and off-campus centers, development of a program-based funding system, standards for periodic review of programs, and development of a policy by which course credits may flow freely between the community college system and the university. (Ferrell, 1993, p. 89)

This mandate resulted in the formation of a Regionalization Task Force. "The Task Force report was submitted to the State Board [of Community Colleges] in 1994 with a recommendation that no colleges should be closed because of the impact closure would have on student access and on community economic development initiatives" (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995, p. 1).

A Special Provision on Program Regionalization was passed by the 1994 State Legislature. This Special Provision on Program Regionalization included four mandates:

1. Develop a program approval process which uses a regional planning approach.

2. Increase the number of regional program offerings.
3. Reduce the duplication of programs within a reasonably close proximity to each other.
4. Provide more substantive recommendations on how existing as well as new programs can be offered regionally. (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995, p. 1)

In response to the Special Provision on Program Regionalization, the North Carolina Community College System developed a comprehensive "re-engineering" plan. The comprehensive approach arose from both the mandate to implement program regionalization and the need to ensure that the system continue to accomplish its stated mission (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995).

On October 21, 1994, the North Carolina State Board of Community Colleges approved a plan for reengineering programs in the North Carolina Community College System. The framework for the reengineering plan that was developed and implemented is contained in a Department of Community Colleges (January 30, 1995) document entitled Re-engineering Programs in the North Carolina Community College System: Quality, Access, and Regionalism. This document proposed the following:

> Regionalization can be accomplished through a comprehensive approach to restructuring programs by defining new program policies and procedures. Implementation will occur over a three- to five-year period. The outcome of the proposed restructuring will be an increase in the number of regional programs, a reduction in program offerings which do not meet employer and student training needs, consistency in curriculum programs statewide, and a program approval process which uses a regional planning approach. (p.3)

The framework for the reengineering plan had four components: a new program review process, a review of program titles, the development of a common course library, and the development of a regional program planning/approval process (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995).

The first of the four components of the reengineering plan addressed program review. A Program Review Task Force was to establish guidelines for evaluating current programs (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995). Those that did not meet these guidelines were to be terminated, consolidated, or redesigned through a regional planning process. It was not the purpose of the program review process to identify duplicate programs; but, rather to terminate or redesign any program, duplicate or not, that was not meeting employment and student training needs.

The second component of the reengineering plan dealt with a review of program titles. At the time there were over 280 approved program titles, several of which taught essentially the same job skills resulting in duplicate job training (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995). In order to streamline program offerings, program titles and content were to be reviewed and those that taught essentially the same job skills were to be consolidated under a single title. This was to be implemented in conjunction with revised curriculum standards.

The third component of the reengineering plan addressed program and course standardization. It called for the development of a common course catalog for all curriculum programs and the identification of required core courses for each program title (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995). The Articulation Task Force recommended the development of a common course numbering system for all the state's community colleges (a process that was being monitored by the Education Cabinet). The common course catalog was to "include common course numbers, titles, prefixes, descriptions, and credit hours" (p. 4).

The fourth and final component of the reengineering plan was the development of a regional program planning and approval process (Department of Community Colleges, January 30, 1995). Programs that were determined to have "universal economic impact" were to be designated as "local programs." These would be programs that teach job skills required in any community. All other programs were to be categorized as "regional programs." Applications for new programs would have to meet different criteria depending on whether the new program was classified as local or regional. Criteria were also to be developed to guide colleges in conducting regional planning for new programs.

The conversion from the quarter system to the semester system occurred at all community colleges in the state simultaneously with the implementation of reengineering. The Department of Community Colleges (January 30, 1995) noted in the reengineering plan that if the system was "going to convert to the semester system, this conversion should occur concurrently with the development of a common course catalog. Otherwise, the work of redesigning courses would occur twice" (p. 4).

Semester conversion had been discussed for several years prior to the development of the reengineering plan. In 1990, the North Carolina Association of Community College Presidents (NCACCP) initiated a feasibility study on the possible conversion of the system from the quarter to the semester system (State Board of Community Colleges, April 21, 1995). A committee of presidents and state office staff conducted the feasibility study during 1991-1992. Several benefits of conversion to a semester system were identified. These benefits included: improved articulation and transfer of credits; improved student retention and success; improved student-centered services; better coordinated educational calendars with educational institutions within

service areas; extended time period for fiscal planning and budget adjustments; and alignment of the System with the national trend of using semester hours of credit as a measurement (NCACCP Program Committee, January 24, 1992).

While the President's Association had voted in favor of system-wide semester conversion by a 42 to 15 margin on April 24, 1992 (State Board of Community Colleges, April 21, 1995), the State Board of Community Colleges, at its October 8, 1992, meeting, "voted to delay a decision on conversion to the semester system and to refer the issue of conversion to its Policy Committee" (Department of Community Colleges, October 1992). The Policy Committee was to address not only semester conversion but also "the larger issue of transferability of course credits both within the system and to four-year institutions" (p. 1).

In light of the impending reengineering effort, the President's Association reaffirmed their vote to convert to a semester system of credits in February 1995. This time the vote was even more overwhelming with only three presidents voting to keep the quarter-hour credit system (State Board of Community Colleges, April 21, 1995). The State Board of Community Colleges was asked to make a decision on semester system conversion as soon as possible in order that it could be incorporated into the reengineering project if the conversion was approved.

The State Board of Community Colleges approved conversion to a semester system in April 1995 (Chesson, November 9, 1995). With this approval, semester conversion became a part of the reengineering project. Chesson, former Executive Vice President with the North Carolina Community College System, cited the following reasons for semester conversion: enhanced articulation with public schools and

universities, support of an education continuum, facilitation of the transfer of students, reduction in administrative costs, and a means of systematic review and assessment.

Statement of the Problem

Strong leadership was needed at all levels as North Carolina community colleges went through this time of great change. The semester conversion and reengineering of curricula at North Carolina community colleges called for these institutions to embrace change. Transformational leadership denotes leading change. According to Yukl (1994), "transformational leadership refers to the process of building commitment to the organization's objectives and empowering followers to accomplish these objectives" (p. 350). Building this commitment is certainly necessary if the faculty is to "buy-in" to the curriculum changes brought about by an event as enormous as semester conversion and reengineering of the curriculum.

Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) defined transformational leadership in the community college as "the ability to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of others by working with and through them to accomplish the college's mission and purpose" (p. 11). While transformational leadership has been studied at the presidential level, it has not traditionally been applied to leaders at the department chair level.

What are behavioral characteristics of department chairs who have done an excellent job in leading their departments through significant change such as reengineering and semester conversion? This study was designed to investigate the transformational leadership behaviors of exceptional department chairs in North Carolina community colleges during a period of great change and to determine the level of

agreement between the department chair and her or his faculty members as to the department chair's transformational leadership style.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the leadership styles of North Carolina community college department chairpersons seen as being role models by their instructional administrators in leading their departments through the reengineering process and semester conversion. The self-perceived leadership styles of department chairs' were compared to their faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' leadership styles to determine if there was congruence between the perceptions of these groups. An additional factor studied was whether there are any differences in this congruence depending on whether the department chair is at a large or small community college.

The Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III (MCLQ-III), developed by Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) and revised by Baker (1994, 1996) was used as the primary data collection instrument in this study. The MCLQ-III instrument characterizes leadership in five clusters describing attributes of transformational leaders. These are an intuitive component (formerly identified as vision), influence orientation, people orientation, motivational orientation, and ethical (formerly values) orientation. Department chairs' self-ratings on these characteristics were compared to ratings of the chairs by their faculty members.

Significance of the Study

While significant research has been conducted on leadership at the senior level of community colleges, there is a shortage of research concerning leadership at the

department chair level. Existing literature on leadership at the department chair level (Bennett & Figuli, 1990; Creswell, Wheeler, Seagren, Egly, & Beyer, 1990; Lucas, 1994; Moses & Roe, 1990; & Tucker, 1992) is not specific to the community college, and in most cases focuses on the university level. In addition, documented identification of transformational leadership behaviors at the department chair level is also lacking in the literature.

This study adds to the existing body of knowledge about leadership in community colleges. Specifically, the study identified the leadership styles of exceptional department chairs in community colleges involved in leading a significant change. The study identified characteristics of these department chairs important to leading change, adds to the body of knowledge on transformational leadership in community college education, and identified traits common to transformational leadership at the department chair level.

Research Questions

The basic premise that guided this study was that if one wishes to understand exceptional performance, one must study exceptional performers. Specifically, the following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the self-perceived leadership styles of department chairs identified by their instructional administrator as being outstanding in leading their departments through the semester conversion and reengineering process at North Carolina community colleges?

2. What are the leadership styles of these department chairs identified as being outstanding in leading their departments through the semester conversion and

reengineering process at North Carolina community colleges as perceived by the faculty members?

3. What differences are there between these department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' leadership styles?

4. Are there any differences in the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' leadership styles at large and small institutions?

Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were proposed for this study:

H_o^1: There is no statistically significant difference between department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' overall leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^2: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the intuitive component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^3: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the influence component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^4: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the people component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^5: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the motivational component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^6: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the ethical component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^7: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' overall leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^8: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the intuitive component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^9: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the influence component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^{10}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the people component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^{11}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the motivational component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^{12}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the ethical component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^{13}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' overall leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{14}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the intuitive component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{15}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the influence component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{16}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the people component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{17}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the motivational component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{18}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the ethical component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to assessing the perceived transformational leadership behaviors of department chairs at North Carolina community colleges. A comparison was drawn between the perceived leadership characteristics of department chairs by the chairs and their faculty. The focus was on the department chairs' behaviors with their faculty members and did not measure the extent to which department chairs practiced leadership and influence with other groups beyond their faculty.

It should be noted that the survey took place following the end of the second full year of implementation of the semester conversion and reengineering. This may have resulted in some differences in responses that may not have existed if the study were conducted simultaneously with the semester conversion and reengineering of curriculum programs.

Definition of Terms

Leadership: Definitions of leadership vary depending on the source; however, influencing others toward achievement of goals is common in many definitions. Jago (1982, March) defined leadership in terms of both process and property.

> The process of leadership is the use of noncoercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the members of an organized group toward the accomplishment of group objectives. As a property, leadership is the set of qualities or characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to successfully employ such influence (p. 315).

Transformational Leadership: Transformational leadership is defined as "the ability to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behavior of others by working with

and through them to accomplish the college's mission and purpose" (Roueche, Baker, and Rose, 1989, p. 11). Attributes of transformational leadership are vision, influence orientation, people orientation, motivational orientation, and values orientation (Roueche, Baker, and Rose, 1989).

Department Chair: As used in this study, the term department chair refers to employees positioned in the organizational hierarchy immediately above non-managerial faculty. Department chairs may have various titles; however, they are the lowest level instructional administrators in the organizational hierarchy.

Chapter Two

Review of the Literature

Definitions of Leadership

Because of its perceived importance, volumes of publications related to leadership have been produced to meet the needs of individuals and organizations searching for better leadership. Definitions of leadership vary depending on the source; however, influencing others is a common theme in most definitions. Hilgert and Haimann (1991) defined leadership simply as "the ability to guide and influence the opinions, attitudes, and behavior of others" (pp. 16-17). Gulley (1960) proposed that leadership is "influencing others within a particular situation and social context in a way that induces them to follow, to be modified, to be directed" (p. 174).

Other definitions explicitly state that leadership is goal-directed. Kreitner and Kinicki (1995) stated that leadership is "influencing employees to voluntarily pursue [sic] organizational goals" (p. 428). Stogdill (1974) defined leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement" (p. 57). Nahavandi's (1997) and Dessler's (1995) definitions of a leader strongly support the idea that leadership is goal directed. Nahavandi defined a leader "as any person who influences individuals and groups within an organization, helps them in the establishment of goals, and guides them toward achievement of those goals, thereby allowing them to be effective" (p. 4). Dessler stated that "leadership occurs whenever one person influences another to work toward some predetermined objective" (p. 364).

Jago (1982, March) defined leadership in terms of both process and property.

> The process of leadership is the use of non-coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the members of an organized group toward the

> accomplishment of group objectives. As a property, leadership is the set of qualities or characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to successfully employ such influence. (p. 315)

What these definitions imply is that anyone who is able to influence others toward objectives can be considered a leader. Formal leadership, however, is tied to a hierarchical position. Yukl (1994) uses the term leader "to refer to people who occupy positions in which they are expected to exert leadership" (p.5). This was supported by Nahavandi (1997) who stated that "the presence of leaders often assumes some form of hierarchy within a group" (p. 4).

In a community college, formal instructional leadership positions exist at hierarchical levels ranging form the president down to the department chairperson. Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) defined leadership in terms of the community college. They stated that "leadership is the ability to influence, shape, and embed values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors consistent with increased staff and faculty commitment to the unique mission of the community college" (p. 18).

Theories of Leading Change

If one views change as being the outcome of leadership as Daft (1999) stated, then a broad brush approach must be taken in identifying leadership theories as they all can be considered to be related to leading change. Leadership research and theories can be classified as trait, behavioral, situational, dyadic, and transactional versus transformational approaches. By looking at these major categories of leadership theories one can see the evolution of leadership thought.

Trait Theories

Many of the earliest leadership investigations focused on comparing the traits of leaders with those of followers and identifying the traits or characteristics of effective leaders (Megginson, Mosley, & Pietri, 1989). Early trait research seems to have been based on the assumption that leaders are born, not made (Megginson et al.; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). But research has not demonstrated conclusively that certain traits can distinguish effective from ineffective leaders.

Kreitner and Kinicki (1995) reported that prior to World War II hundreds of leadership trait studies were conducted identifying dozens of leadership traits. Stogdill (1948) reviewed over 120 of these studies. He concluded that the following five personal traits tended to differentiate leaders from average followers: intelligence, dominance, and self-confidence, level of energy and activity, and task relevant knowledge. Stogdill (1974) later identified leadership traits related to social and interpersonal skills, technical skills, administrative skills, and leadership effectiveness. He also later recognized the importance of the situation in the analysis of leadership.

Mann (1959) examined seven categories of personality traits. He found that intelligence tended to be the best predictor of leadership. He concluded that positive relationships between traits were weak and lacked validity. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1995), the work of Mann and Stogdill (1948; 1974) brought great criticism to the trait approach. Despite this, Megginson et al. (1989) recognized that "respected research is still being done in this area" (p. 345).

Another trait researcher, Ghiselli (1971), found that certain characteristics seem to be related to effective leadership. These include:

1. *Supervisory ability*, or performing the basic functions of management, especially leading and controlling the work of others.
2. *Need for occupational achievement*, including seeking responsibility and desiring success.
3. *Intelligence*, including judgment, reasoning, and reactive thinking. .
4. *Decisiveness*, or the ability to make decisions and solve problems capably and competently.
5. *Self-assurance*, or viewing oneself as capable of coping with problems.
6. *Initiative*, or the ability to act independently, develop courses of action not readily apparent to other people, and find new or innovative ways of doing things. (Megginson et al., 1989, p. 345)

Contemporary trait research, such as that of Lord, De Vader, and Alliger (1986), demonstrated a high degree of correlation between traits and perceived leadership ability. Earlier studies had focused on matching traits with leader effectiveness rather than perceived leadership ability. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1995), the implications are that trait research cannot be ignored. "Traits play a central role in how we perceive leaders" (p.430).

Behavioral Theories

Behavioral theories of leadership began to emerge during World War II as an outgrowth of the apparent inability of trait research to explain leader effectiveness and the development of the human relations movement spawned by the Hawthorne Studies (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). The idea behind behavioral leadership theory was that leader

behavior had a direct effect on work group effectiveness. "This led researchers to identify patterns of behavior (called leadership styles) that enabled leaders to effectively influence others" (p. 431). These studies focused on what leaders do in an attempt to identify the "best" way to lead.

Lewin and his associates (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939) conducted studies that served as a precursor to the behavioral approach at Iowa State University in the 1930s. These studies identified three styles of leadership: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. According to Daft (1999), "an autocratic leader is one who tends to centralize authority and derive power from position, control of rewards, and coercion. A democratic leader delegates authority to others, encourages participation, relies on subordinates' knowledge for completion of tasks, and depends on subordinate respect for influence" (p. 69). A laissez-faire leader is permissive and allows followers to do what they want with minimum direction or discipline (Megginson et al., 1989).

Megginson et al. (1989) reported on the findings of this research. In the autocratic environment, work proceeded intensely as long as the leader was present, but the quality was inferior. Work stopped when the leader was not present. Followers did not participate in long-range planning and aggression was prevalent. Work continued in the democratic environment even when the leader was not present. This implied group cohesiveness and motivation. Productivity was lowest with laissez-faire leadership and frustration abounded. The researchers concluded that the democratic leadership style produced the best outcome.

Most behavioral studies focused on identifying the leader's orientation toward the employee, the task to be completed, or a combination of these two factors (Megginson et

al., 1989). The leadership dimensions and corresponding leadership styles of three of the better-known behavioral studies are illustrated in Figure 1. These are the Ohio State Studies, the Michigan Studies, and Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid.

Researchers at Ohio State University used surveys to generate a list of nearly 2000 leader behaviors which they boiled-down to two wide-ranged dimensions of leadership (Daft, 1999; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). The first dimension, consideration, "involves leader behavior associated with creating mutual respect or trust and focuses on a concern for group members' needs and desires" (Kreitner & Kinicki, p. 432). Kreitner and Kinicki defined the second dimension, initiating structure, as "leader behavior that organizes and defines what group members should be doing to maximize output" (p. 432). The degree (high or low) to which each dimension is exhibited yields four possible leadership styles. The researchers initially hypothesized that a high structure, high consideration style was the best style of leadership (Kreitner & Kinicki); but, later research indicated that any of the four styles can be effective (Daft; Kreitner & Kinicki).

Studies at the University of Michigan compared the behavior of effective leaders with ineffective leaders. As reported by Daft (1999), these researchers developed two dichotomous types of leadership behavior, each with two dimensions. Employee-centered leaders display a focus on the human needs of followers. "Leader support and interaction facilitation are the two underlying dimensions of employee-centered behavior" (p. 73). The dimensions of job-centered behavior are goal emphasis and work facilitation. Job-centered leaders direct activities toward efficiency by focusing on reaching task goals and facilitating the structure of tasks. Although the researchers did

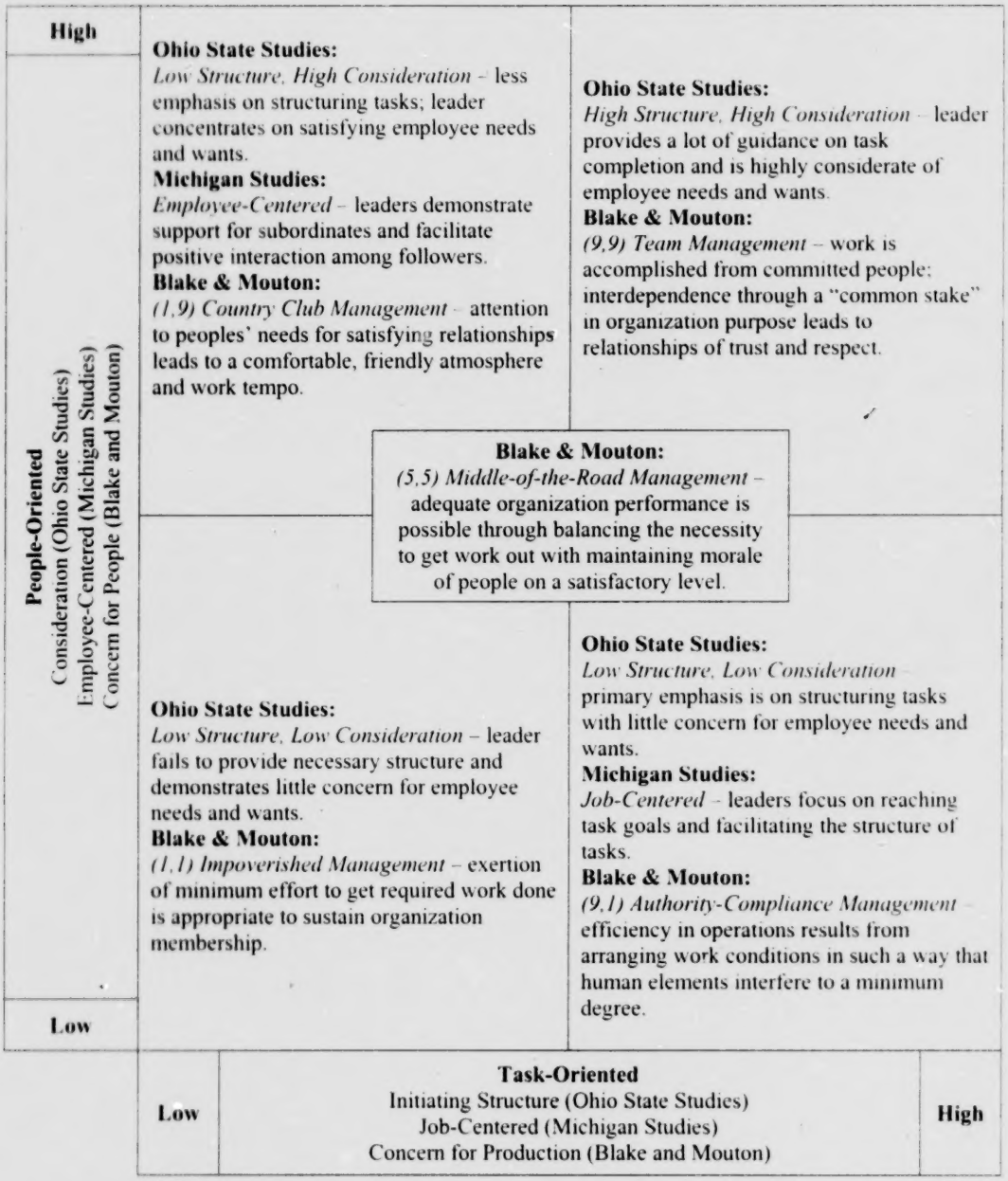
High
Low
People-Oriented
Consideration (Ohio State Studies)
Employee-Centered (Michigan Studies)
Concern for People (Blake and Mouton)
Ohio State Studies:
Low Structure, High Consideration – less emphasis on structuring tasks; leader concentrates on satisfying employee needs and wants.
Michigan Studies:
Employee-Centered – leaders demonstrate support for subordinates and facilitate positive interaction among followers.
Blake & Mouton:
(1,9) Country Club Management – attention to peoples' needs for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly atmosphere and work tempo.
Ohio State Studies:
High Structure, High Consideration – leader provides a lot of guidance on task completion and is highly considerate of employee needs and wants.
Blake & Mouton:
(9,9) Team Management – work is accomplished from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.
Blake & Mouton:
(5,5) Middle-of-the-Road Management – adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get work out with maintaining morale of people on a satisfactory level.
Ohio State Studies:
Low Structure, Low Consideration – leader fails to provide necessary structure and demonstrates little concern for employee needs and wants.
Blake & Mouton:
(1,1) Impoverished Management – exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.
Ohio State Studies:
Low Structure, Low Consideration – primary emphasis is on structuring tasks with little concern for employee needs and wants.
Michigan Studies:
Job-Centered – leaders focus on reaching task goals and facilitating the structure of tasks.
Blake & Mouton:
(9,1) Authority-Compliance Management – efficiency in operations results from arranging work conditions in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.
Low
Task-Oriented
Initiating Structure (Ohio State Studies)
Job-Centered (Michigan Studies)
Concern for Production (Blake and Mouton)
High

Figure 1. Leadership dimensions and corresponding leadership styles of the Ohio State Studies, Michigan Studies, and Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid. Developed from: Daft, 1999; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995; Megginson et al., 1989.

not place these leadership styles on a quadrant format as indicated in Figure 1, the employee-centered and job-centered styles of leadership roughly correspond to the Ohio State Studies concepts of consideration and initiating structure respectively. Unlike the Ohio State Studies, the "Michigan researchers considered employee-centered leadership and job-centered leadership to be distinct styles in opposition to one another" (p.74). A leader can be identified as either one or the other, but not both. They found that employee-centered leaders were more productive than job-centered leaders (Megginson et al., 1989). The Michigan Studies also recognized that other people in a group, besides the leader, could perform the four underlying dimensions, which could enhance performance (Daft).

Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid [renamed the Leadership Grid in 1991 (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995)] also identified leadership styles based on people-oriented (concern for people) and task-oriented (concern for production) behaviors by leaders (Megginson et al., 1989). Initially they identified the five management styles depicted in Figure 1 based on degrees of concern for people or concern for production and placed them on a nine by nine grid. Blake and Mouton emphasized "that a high concern for both employees and production is the most effective type of leadership" (p. 352). This was the (9,9) team management style. Later, sixth and seventh styles were identified. In the (9 + 9), paternalism/maternalism style "reward and approval gain loyalty and obedience to work requirement. Failure leads to punishment" (Daft, 1999, p. 76). The seventh style, opportunism, is situational. Opportunism recognizes that "people adapt and shift to any

grid style needed to gain the maximum advantage. Performance occurs according to selfish gain. Effort is given for advantage or personal gain" (p. 76).

Kreitner and Kinicki (1995) made some concluding observations about behavioral leadership theories. First, the behavioral theories emphasized that leader behavior is learned. This is in contrast to the original assumptions of trait theories that leaders are born and not made. Second, leader behaviors can be improved and developed through behavior modification techniques. And third, "behavioral styles research also revealed that there is no one best style of leadership. The effectiveness of a particular leadership style depends on the situation at hand" (p. 433).

Situational Theories

As stated by Daft (1999), "the failure to find universal traits or behaviors that would always determine effective leadership led researchers in a new direction . . . . The central focus of the new research was the situation in which leadership occurred" (p. 93). The idea behind situational or contingency approaches to leadership is "that no one leadership style is right for every manager under all circumstances" (Megginson et al., 1989). Rather, the appropriate style of leadership to be used depends on the situation, the people, the organization, or other environmental factors.

One of the earliest situational theories, originally published in 1958, was the leadership continuum proposed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (Megginson et al., 1989). Daft (1999) reported that they "indicated that leadership behavior could exist on a continuum reflecting different amounts of employee participation" (p. 69). This leadership continuum is illustrated in Figure 2. Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggested that

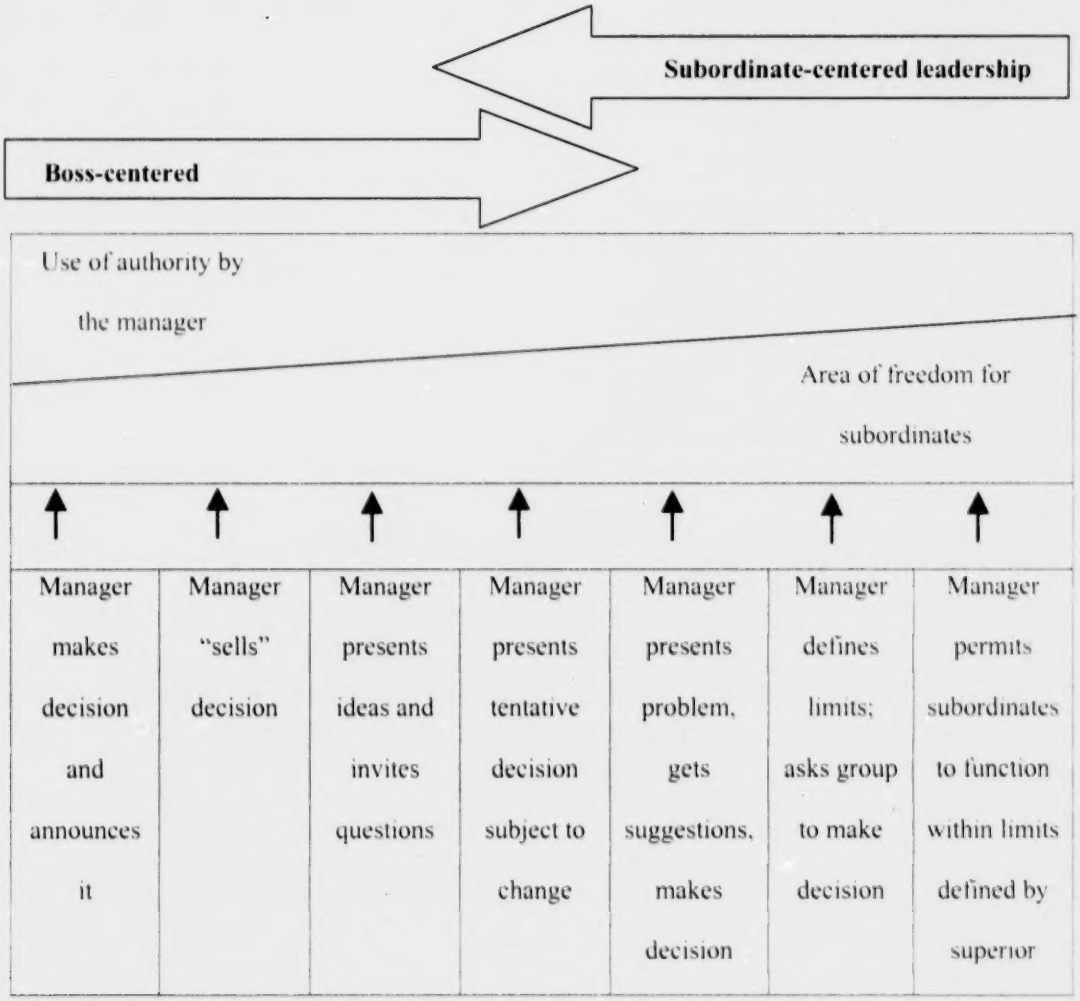
Subordinate-centered leadership
Boss-centered
Use of authority by the manager
Area of freedom for subordinates
Manager makes decision and announces it
Manager "sells" decision
Manager presents ideas and invites questions
Manager presents tentative decision subject to change
Manager presents problem, gets suggestions, makes decision
Manager defines limits; asks group to make decision
Manager permits subordinates to function within limits defined by superior

Figure 2. Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Leadership Continuum model.

Note. From Management: Concepts and applications, (3rd ed.). by L. C. Megginson, . D. C., Mosley, and P. H. Pietri, Jr., 1989, p. 356.

leaders adjust their behaviors to fit the circumstances. The extent to which a leader should be boss-centered (autocratic) or subordinate-centered (democratic) depended on certain interacting and interrelated forces. Megginson et al. described these forces as follows:

> *Forces in the manager* include his or her (1) value system, (2) confidence in subordinates, (3) own leadership inclinations, and (4) feelings of secruity or insecurity.
> *Forces in subordinates* include (1) their need for independence, (2) their need for increased responsibility, (3) whether they are interested in and have the knowledge to tackle the problem, and (4) their expectations with respect to sharing in decision making.
> *Forces in the situation* include (1) the type of organization, (2) the group's effectiveness, (3) the pressure of time, and (4) the nature of the problem itself. (p. 356)

Successful managers are those who develop skills in assessing the appropriate behavior for a given situation (Megginson et al., 1989). Daft (1999) gave the following examples of how the leadership continuum could be used.

> If there is time pressure on a leader or if it takes too long for subordinates to learn how to make decision, the leader will tend to use an autocratic style. When subordinates are able to learn decision-making skills readily, a participative style can be used. Also, the greater the skill difference, the more autocratic the leader approach, because it is difficult to bring subordinates up to the leader's expertise level. (p.71)

Another early situational leadership theory was Fiedler's Contingency Model. Fiedler (1967) proposed that the leader's style should be matched to a situation in which the leader would most likely be successful. His model was designed to determine the leader's personality and the organizational situation.

Fiedler (1967) developed a questionnaire known as the least preferred coworker (LPC) scale to identify the leader's personality. The LPC measures the extent to which the leader is relationship-oriented or task-oriented. This questionnaire contains a set of

16 pairs of bipolar adjectives, each with an eight point scale. The leader was to rate a person with whom he or she could work least well according to the scale. A low LPC score indicated that the leader was task-oriented and would be motivated by task accomplishment. A high LPC score indicated a relationship-oriented leader who would listen to employee's needs and establish mutual trust and respect.

Fiedler (1967) describes the situation in terms of three key elements that can be either favorable or unfavorable to a leader: (1) leader-member relations, (2) task structure, and (3) position power. Leader-member relations referred to the member's attitudes toward and acceptance of the leader. Poor leader-member relations indicated subordinate distrust and a lack of respect and confidence in the leader while good leader-member relations indicated trust, respect, and confidence. Task structure can be high or low and referred to the extent to which tasks to be performed are well defined, involve specific procedures, and have clear, explicit goals. Position power referred to the extent of formal authority the leader has over subordinates. When position power is high the leader has authority to plan, direct, and evaluate the work of subordinates as well as reward or punish them. Low position power indicates little formal authority over subordinates. The combination of these key elements resulted in eight situations ranging from favorable to moderate to unfavorable for the leader.

Fiedler (1967) theorized that the task-oriented leader performed better in favorable and unfavorable situations while the relationship-oriented leader was more effective in moderately favorable situations. As described by Daft (1999) the task-oriented leader performs better in favorable situations "because everyone gets along, the task is clear, and the leader has power; all that is needed is for someone to take charge

and provide direction. Similarly, if the situation is highly unfavorable to the leader, a great deal of structure and task direction is needed" (p. 96). The relationship-oriented leader performs better in situations of moderate favorability because human relations skills are important in achieving high group performance in these situations.

House and Mitchell (1974) proposed the path-goal theory of leadership. According to the path-goal theory, the leader must provide goals and rewards and help subordinates to see the path they might follow to attain these rewards. Doing so will increase the confidence of subordinates, arouse their interest, and increase their efforts to achieve the goals.

Four primary leadership styles were identified in the path-goal theory. These were described by Hampton, Summer, and Webber (1987) as follows:

- Using directive leadership, the leader explains what the task goal is . . . and the procedures required to perform it . . .
- Using supportive leadership, the leader displays in many ways his or her personal concern for subordinates and their lives.
- Using achievement-oriented leadership, the leader emphasizes achievement of difficult tasks, and excellence of performance required.
- Using participative leadership, the leader consults with subordinates about both task goals and the ways (paths) to achieve these goals. (p. 571)

The leader's success is dependent on matching the leadership styles to the particular situation. The two main elements that define the situation are the nature of the people being led and the nature of the job itself. The nature of the people being led would include their ability and knowledge related to the task and their internal locus of control. The nature of the job would include whether the job is routine and repetitive or whether it is more ambiguous. Table 1 indicates the appropriate leadership style, according to the theory, matched to the situational factors.

Table 1

Path-Goal Theory: leadership styles matched to the situation.

Situational Factors		
Nature of the People	Nature of the Task	Leadership Style
Lesser trained	Partly routine and partly ambiguous	Directive
Some experience	Routine	Supportive
High level of knowledge and skill	Highly inventive, innovative, and ambiguous	Achievement-Oriented
Medium level of experience	Medium levels of ambiguity	Participative

Note. Developed from Organizational Behavior and the Practice of Management, 5th ed. by D. R. Hampton, C. E. Summer, and R. A. Webber, 1987, Harper Collins Publishers.

In the situational leadership theory, Hersey and Blanchard (1977) matched four leadership styles with four levels of follower maturity as shown in Figure 3. First presented as the life-cycle theory, it drew heavily on previous leadership research, particularly the Ohio State studies; but, Hersey and Blanchard took a situational approach emphasizing that leaders should use an adaptive style depending on their diagnosis of the situation (Megginson et al., 1989). Since its introduction, "the model has undergone a number of cosmetic and substantive changes which Blanchard, Zigarmi, and Nelson (1993) refer to as 'revisions that have since improved the model'" (Graeff, 1997, p.1).

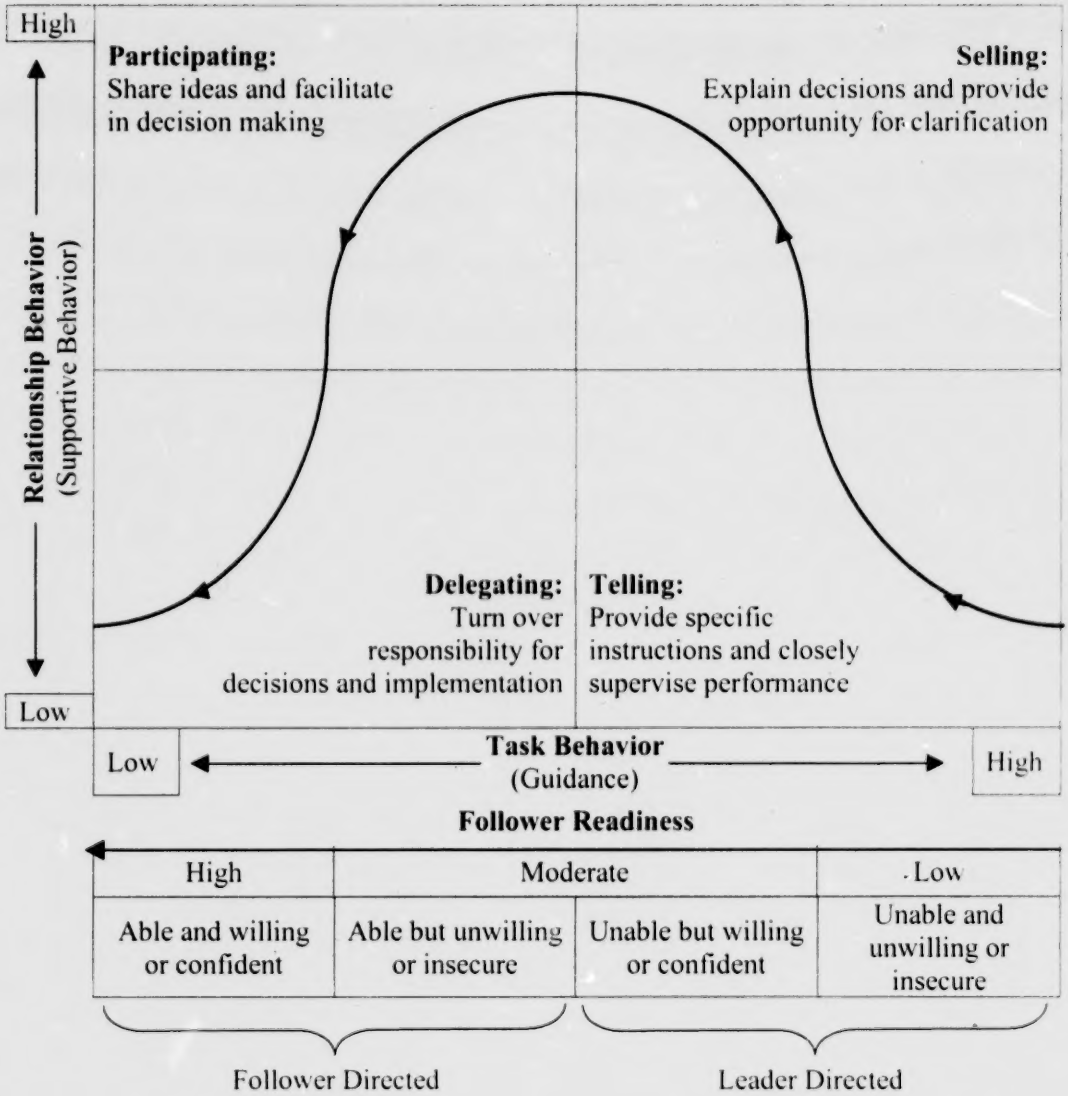

Figure 3. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership model.

Note. Adapted from Situational Selling by P. Hersey, 1985, Escondido, CA: Center for Leadership Studies, Inc.

The situational leadership theory focuses on the characteristics of followers as the key element of the situation and the determining element in identifying effective leader behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). By following the curve in Figure 3 the appropriate leadership style for each level of follower readiness or maturity is indicated. The telling style is very task oriented and directive. It is appropriate for situations in which the followers are unable and unwilling or insecure in completion of the task. The selling style involves both providing direction and seeking input for decision making from followers. Hersey and Blanchard identify this as the appropriate style when followers are unable, but willing to perform the task and confident. The participating style focuses on supporting the development of followers and serving as a resource for advice and information. It is suggested that this style is appropriate when followers are able, but either unwilling or insecure concerning task completion. In the final style, delegating, there is little direction or support. It is appropriate when followers are self-directing.

Graeff (1997) noted that situational leadership theory has received a good deal of criticism. Part of the criticism stems from frequent relabeling of key concepts and some conceptual changes in multiple versions of the model. The major criticism, however, has been that the model lacks a sound theoretical foundation for the hypothesized relationships among variables. Graeff declared that, perhaps to avoid the criticism of a weak theoretical rationale, Hersey and Blanchard contend that their situational leadership approach is not a theory but a practical model that can be used in many different settings.

Dyadic Theories

According to Daft (1999), who summarized the work of Danereau (1995) and Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), dyadic theorists believe that trait and behavioral theories are oversimplifications of the relationship between leaders and followers. Dyadic theories focus on the exchange that takes place between a leader and a follower and "examines why leaders have more influence over and greater impact on some followers than other followers" (p. 80). The idea is that a single leader forms different relationships with different followers because a particular leadership trait or behavior is neither broadcast to nor received by each subordinate equally. Williams and Podsakoff (1992) noted that proponents of this approach "argue that the dyadic relationship between a leader and his or her subordinates is a more appropriate unit of analysis for conducting leadership studies than the relationship between a leader and the entire work group" (p. 2).

The dyadic approach developed in four phases over the past 25 years. Daft (1999) identified these phases as vertical dyad linkage, leader-member exchange, partnership building, and systems and networks. In the first phase, vertical dyad linkage, "initial findings indicated that subordinates provided very different descriptions of the same leader" (p. 80). Two sub-groups of subordinates tended to exist – an "in-group" and an "out-group." Those in the in-group "rated the leader highly [and] had developed close relationships with the leader and often became assistants who played key roles in the functioning of the work unit" (p. 81). These followers reported that accessibility, mutual influence and collaborative effort, and opportunities to earn greater rewards and perform additional responsibilities existed with the leader. "Out-group members were not key players in the work unit" (p. 81). They tended to be passive and did not

experience positive relationships with the leader. Leader access and their ability to influence the leader were limited. "The leader was more likely to use formal authority and coercive behavior on these subordinates" (pp. 81-82). In-group members received greater attention, approval, and status, but they were expected to be loyal, committed, and productive.

Phase two examined the leader-member exchange in greater detail. It was discovered that "the impact on outcomes depended on how the leader-member exchange process developed over time" (Daft, 1999, p. 82). Daft reported that identification and establishment of leader-member roles and expectations were found to occur in three stages. First, the leader and followers tended to test each other and negotiate a role that defined what the member was expected to do. Second, as the leader and member became further acquainted, the roles they would play were sharpened and refined. Finally, a steady pattern of behavior was established. The exchange relationship established tended to determine the in-group or out-group status of the follower and higher quality leader-member exchange relationships existed for in-group members, which were associated with higher satisfaction and performance.

The third phase of research, partnership building, focused on how leaders can develop beneficial relationships with all followers. Daft (1999) reported that by viewing each person independently and treating each person in a different but positive manner, high quality leader-member relations could be established with all employees. Studies showed that leaders, who offered high quality relationships to all subordinates, were able to achieve dramatic increases in performance when followers accepted the offer. When leaders provided support, encouragement, and training, followers responded with higher

performance. "The implications of this finding are that true performance and productivity gains can be achieved by having the leader develop positive relationships one-on-one with each subordinate" (p. 83).

The final phase of dyadic leadership research, systems and networks, suggested that leader relationships can apply to broader systems beyond the leader's work group (Daft, 1999). Relationships can be created across traditional boundaries, extending beyond work group, functional, divisional, and even organizational boundaries. "In this view, leader relationships are not limited to subordinates, but include peers, teammates, and other stakeholders relevant to the work unit" (p. 83). Daft noted that there has been little research on this broader, systemic view but the implications are that leaders need to build networks of positive, one-to-one relationships with as many people as possible who may contribute to the success of the work unit.

Williams and Podsakoff (1992) compared the dyadic leadership approach to the assumption of an average leadership style. Average leadership style assumes that leaders act in a relatively uniform way to all of their subordinates and, thus, tend to have a distinct leadership style that characterizes her or his interactions with all subordinates. The dyadic view assumes that leaders do not exhibit the same behaviors to all subordinates. Instead, their leadership behavior will vary according to the particular subordinate they are influencing. The findings of their study indicated that individual ratings (representing the dyadic approach) of leader behavior better explained subordinate attitudes and performance than did group ratings (representing the average leadership style approach) of the leader. These findings supported studies by Katterberg and Hom (1981) and Vecchio (1982). These two studies found that while the leader's overall style

does predict subordinate attitudinal criteria, the dyadic approach goes farther in explaining the variance in attitudinal variables.

Transactional versus Transformational Leadership

Theories of transformational leadership emerged, primarily in the 1980s, in response to the need of organizations to change the way things were done. The word "transformation" denotes change. Transformational leadership has been identified as having a substantial impact on leading an organization through major change and organizational renewal (Daft, 1999). Lucas (1994) described transformational leaders as follows:

> Transformational leaders create a shared vision, energize others by communicating that vision at many levels, stimulate others to think in different ways and to excel, give individual consideration to others, and provide an organizational climate that helps others to accomplish activities of value and feel appreciated. (p. 47)

One of the first theorists to classify the leader-follower relationship as transactional or transformational was Burns (1978). Burns conducted a comprehensive study of leadership and discovered that all leadership could be classified as either transactional or transformational. The concept of transformational leadership may best be understood in comparison to transactional leadership.

The basis of transactional leadership, according to Burns (1978), involves contact initiated by one person with others in order to exchange something of value. An example would be paying wages in exchange for employee effort and skills. Transactional leadership can be thought of as a series of economic and social transactions to achieve specific goals (Daft, 1999). Daft described the workings of transactional leadership clearly. "The transactional leader recognizes specific follower desires and provides

goods that meet those desires in exchange for followers meeting specified objectives or performing certain duties. Thus, followers receive rewards for job performance while leaders benefit from the completion of tasks" (p. 427).

Bass (1985a) studied reinforcement, both reward and punishment, as related to transactional leadership. He identified that, in transactional leadership, leaders and followers clearly understand the rewards for successful task completion or punishment for non-completion. Bass found that extrinsic rewards such as praise, recognition, promotion, and pay increases can lead to increased personal satisfaction and motivation. However, he noted that if a follower behaves in a compliant manner, transactional leaders might not reward the follower. Instead, leaders tended to emphasize the negative by intervening only when there is a need for punishment. Bass identified that punishment, or the fear of punishment, tends to be the more prevalent factor in controlling the behavior of followers under transactional leadership. He identified this discrepancy in rewards and punishment as a principal weakness of transactional leadership.

Transactional leaders can be thought of as managers who plan, organize, staff, lead, and control progress toward goals (Lucas, 1994). Daft (1999) recognized that transactional leadership could be effective. Transactional leaders excel at clarifying expectations, planning, budgeting, and keeping the organization running smoothly. However, he also contended that, because transactional leadership focuses on maintaining stability, it is not an appropriate method for promoting or initiating needed change.

According to Yukl (1994), "transformational leadership refers to the process of building commitment to the organization's objectives and empowering followers to accomplish these objectives" (p. 350). As defined by Burns (1978), transformational

leadership is "the development of a relationship of mutual needs, aspirations, and values in which the leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs and engages the full person of the follower" (p. 4). Burns described transformational leadership as a process in which leaders and followers raise each other to higher levels of motivation and morality.

Daft (1999) identified that transformational leaders focus on intangible qualities like vision, shared values, and ideas rather than an exchange process with tangible incentives to control specific transactions with followers. They "build relationships, give larger meaning to diverse activities, and find common ground to enlist followers in the change process" (p. 427). According to Daft, transformational leadership differs from transactional leadership in the following ways:

1. Transformational leadership develops followers into leaders . . .
2. Transformational leadership elevates followers' concerns from lower-level physical needs (such as for safety and security) to higher-level psychological needs (such as for self-esteem and self-actualization) . . .
3. Transformational leadership inspires followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group . . .
4. Transformational leadership paints a vision of a desired future state and communicates it in a way that makes the pain of change worth the effort. (p. 428)

This is supported by Yukl (1994) who stated, "the leader transforms and motivates followers by: (1) making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes, (2) inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team, and (3) activating their higher-order needs" (p. 351).

Bass and Avolio (1990) identified four component behaviors of transformational leadership. These were charisma, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and inspiration. Charismatic leadership involves projecting a vision, which is shared by

followers, and inspiring followers to do more than they would normally do (Daft, 1999). To Bass (1985b) charisma is the most important aspect of transformational leadership. He identified charismatic leaders as those who inspire enthusiasm and loyalty, command respect, have the ability to see what is really important, and have a strong sense of mission. Individualized consideration refers to the leader's ability to set examples, evaluate followers' potential, and assign tasks on an individual basis (Bass, 1985b). They delegate challenging work and increase subordinates' responsibilities, which contribute to both the development and satisfaction of followers. Intellectual stimulation arouses awareness in followers of problems and how they may be solved. It allows followers to see things in ways they have not before considered. Inspiration of followers transcends the other three components. According to Bass, the charismatic, transformational leader created motivation, admiration, high esteem, self-confidence, and could project a shared vision in an organizational environment.

Kouzes and Posner (1987) presented a model of transformational leadership in which they identified five major characteristics of transformational leaders. (1) Transformational leaders challenge the process. They engage in an ongoing quest for quality and look for opportunities to make things better. They challenge norms when they are not in the best interest of the organization. (2) Transformational leaders inspire a shared vision. Creation of a vision of what the organization can be is motivational and increases the self-esteem of followers. An effective vision appeals to both the intellect and emotions of followers to create strong positive motivation. (3) Transformational leaders enable others to act. By empowering followers to act, they encourage the transition of creative ideas into actions. (4) Transformational leaders model the way for

followers. They model the positive norms that they would like to characterize their organization. (5) Transformational leaders encourage the heart. They believe in people and find ways of celebrating accomplishments and reinforcing small wins. They recognize that experiencing success with a new behavior results in change.

Before change can take place, leaders must recognize the need for change. Tichy and Devanna (1990) suggested that transformational leaders engage in the following in order to recognize the need for change:

- Challenge current assumptions;
- Monitor the environment in order to gain an objective view of the strengths and weaknesses of the organization;
- Encourage organization members to visit other organizations to learn how they operate; and
- Measure performance against competitors, not the organization's previous performance.

Tichy and Devanna also described characteristics of the transformational leader that set her or him apart from the transactional leader. Transformational leaders see themselves as being change agents and are courageous risk takers. They believe in people and work toward the empowerment of others. They are values driven, visionary, life-long learners who have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty. These characteristics appear to be appropriate for leaders of change in the modern community college.

Characteristics of Community College Leaders Effective in Leading Change

The bulk of leadership studies in community colleges and other higher education institutions have focused on senior administrators such as presidents. Literature dealing with the presidency stresses the exercise of leadership as a crucial factor leading to an institution's success (Cohen & March, 1986). While vice-presidents and deans are also seen as leaders with key roles (Cameron & Ulrich, 1986), less attention has been given to the leadership role of the department chair. In this section, studies focusing on senior level community college leadership will be identified followed by a review of literature as it relates to leading change at the departmental level.

Holda (1995) reported on several studies (Shannon, 1962; McCarthy, 1974; Saunders, 1978) that were conducted focusing on the tasks and roles on community colleges presidents. The current relevance of these studies is questionable because, as Alfred (1984) and Vaughan (1986) reported, the role of the community college president has become more complex and success depends upon how well the institution can adapt to significant and rapid change. Since the 1980s, there has been increasing pressure on community colleges to adapt to changing political, economic, social, and technological environmental conditions. This brought an end to what Alfred (1984) referred to as "the era of laissez faire leadership" in community colleges. Significant studies of community college leadership began to emerge.

Burnham (1983), Dean (1986), and Barnett (1989) researched community college leadership competencies through use of Critical Incident Studies. Burnham studied 27 behavioral leadership competencies as they related to successful developmental education programs in the State of Texas. Presidents were found to be dominant in the following

competencies: conceptualizing, taking initiative, setting goals, expression concern for achievement, encouraging team work, delegating responsibility, and rewarding efforts. Dean researched perceived effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents in the State of Iowa compared to the results of eight previous studies. The top four findings (finance, planning, positive staff and faculty relations, and two-way communication) were consistent with previous studies; however, one significant leadership behavior, actions of the president that personally alienate staff and faculty, emerged as a critical incident in the study. In comparing their research results with the findings of research on leadership characteristics in business and industry, both Dean and Barnett, who conducted a similar study in the State of Oklahoma, found that community college presidency placed greater demands on the leader than were placed on leaders in business.

Vaughan (1986) conducted an extensive study of the personal attributes and presidential skills of 75 "second generation" presidents from across the nation who were identified as leaders in their respective states. All 75 were asked to complete the Leadership Survey (LS) and personal interviews were conducted with 13 of the presidents. Personal attributes and presidential skills were rated in importance on a three-point scale with a rating of 3 being extremely important and a rating of 1 being of little importance. Attributes and skills receiving a mean rating of 2.5 or greater are shown in Table 2. Vaughan noted that transformational leadership was helpful in understanding the community college presidency. Interestingly however, charisma, an important attribute of transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1990), was the lowest rated personal attribute with a rating of less than 2.

Table 2

Most important leadership attributes and skills of community college presidents

Personal Attributes		Presidential Skills	
Integrity	Loyalty	Produce Results	Relate
Judgement	Energy Level	Select People	Define/Solve Problems
Courage	Optimism	Resolve Conflicts	Take Risks
Concern	Excel	Communication	Delegation
Flexibility		Motivate Others	Team Member
Philosophy		Analyze, Evaluate	Know Community
		Articulation	

Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) clearly tied transformational leadership to the community college in their Shared Vision study. They defined transformational leadership in the community college as "the ability to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of others by working with and through them to accomplish the college's mission and purpose" (p. 11). The three-phase national research study sought to identify and describe transformational leadership in American community colleges.

In phase one, Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) identified a group of leaders that exemplified their definition of transformational leadership. This phase resulted in the identification of 296 presidents of community colleges perceived to have transformational leadership qualities. In phase two, these presidents were invited to share, in writing, their personal educational leadership philosophies. Global themes and

philosophical concepts were identified from the educational leadership philosophy statements and translated into transformational attributes. Fifty presidents, who had been identified by at least five of their colleagues as the top nominees for their state or region, were designated as "blue chippers" and selected for the third phase of the study. Phase three involved an in-depth analysis through structured oral interviews with each "blue chipper." Their responses were scored using a code book developed from a review of the literature and the behavioral statements generated from participants' educational leadership philosophies. The behavioral statements also served as a basis for the development of the "Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire" (MCLQ) which each of the fifty presidents were asked to complete. Each member of a particular president's decision-making team was asked to complete a parallel form of the MCLQ in order to correlate the self-perception of the president with her or his decision-making team's perception of the president. The MCLQ focused solely on transformational leadership behaviors. Transactional leadership qualities were not included in the instrument.

Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) identified five themes common to transformational leaders, which were reflected in the MCLQ. These, in order of overall mean ratings by the presidents, are vision, values orientation, people orientation, motivational orientation, and influence orientation. Of these themes, they believed that vision was paramount. They stated that, "the transformational leader must have a vision of the changing college and must be able to transform the beliefs of others into a commitment to shared vision" (p. 13). The researchers found that there was extraordinary congruence between the self-perceptions of presidents and the decision-making team members' perception of the presidents' transformational leadership

behavior. Although they studied community college Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), Roueche, Baker, and Rose recognized that there might be other groups of leaders in community colleges who meet the criteria of transformational leader.

Roe (1989) followed-up the Shared Vision (Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989) study by evaluating the leadership skills of a group of exceptional second and third level community college administrators. She compared the strengths and weaknesses of these executive administrators to the leadership profile of exceptional presidents identified by Roueche, Baker, and Rose in order to determine their readiness for leadership. Results of Roe's study indicated that these administrators did not conceptualize the relationship of identified transformational leadership behaviors with their leadership role at the same frequency as did the exceptional presidents. In addition, varying levels of leadership readiness existed in relation to time spent with constituent groups and in relation to the five transformational themes.

In a study of Virginia community college deans/provosts and division chairs, Sheffield (1993) piloted the MCLQ-II, a major revision of the MCLQ, to determine the appropriateness of the instrument for use in leadership research. She found an overall increase in the reliability of the MCLQ-II over the previous instrument. Cronbach's Alphas, which ranged from 0.74 to 0.89, indicated that the instrument's internal consistency met acceptable expectations for reliability.

Holda (1995) used the MCLQ-II as the primary instrument in his study of 33 Texas community colleges. In his study, presidents and college staff at three levels were surveyed. Then, the data gathered about presidential self-perceptions and the employees' perceptions of the president were compared. He concluded that the MCLQ-II "continued

to be a reliable instrument and is suitable for continued research in the community college." (p. 110). Holda's research led to refinement of the MCLQ-II and the development of the MCLQ-III (Haire, 1997). Holda reported other significant findings from the study. He noted that the constructs of influence and motivation were tightly interwoven and suggested that motivation and influence could be enhanced by being sensitive to people's needs and meeting those needs whenever possible. Holda stated, "Leaders who motivate and influence their followers by considering and meeting their needs, by allowing empowerment and influence, may indeed be much more effective than those leaders who rule by fear or intimidation, or use contingent systems of punishment and reward" (p. 114).

Holda (1995) also noted that presidents tended to rate themselves highly and that there was less congruence between the president's self-perception and the followers' perceptions of the president at lower levels than at higher levels. This suggested that not only was the presidential message not getting through to lower levels, but also, second tier administrators were not communicating the presidential message to lower levels. This implies that presidents need to transmit their messages beyond just their immediate leadership team to other levels of followers in their institutions.

Holda's study (1995) determined the level of congruence by organizational level at both large and small community colleges. While he studied three levels of leaders, his study showed, for all colleges combined, congruence of leader and follower perceptions only for the president and those reporting directly to him or her. The self-perceptions of leaders at lower levels were not congruent with their followers. He did note that there seemed to be greater congruence between leaders and followers at large institutions than

at small institutions. Holda concluded that this difference might be because smaller organizations tend to have less organizational levels and more faculty and staff were included in the top three organizational levels. Larger institutions tend to have more organizational levels and thus more homogeneity exists between leaders and followers at large institutions.

Haire (1997) studied the congruence of perceived transformational leadership behavior of presidents whose community colleges were involved in continuous quality improvement efforts. She used the MCLQ-III to survey the presidents and quality team members of the 21 member institutions of the Carolina Quality Consortium. Her findings revealed that there was no significant correlation among presidents' self-perceptions and quality team members' perceptions of their president for any of the five transformational leadership thematic clusters (vision, influence orientation, people orientation, motivation orientation, and values orientation). Presidents consistently rated themselves higher on each thematic cluster than did their quality team members. This supported Holda's (1995) finding that presidential messages do not seem to be transmitted clearly to lower levels in the institution. Further, she found that vision was ranked second for both presidents and quality team members. This was in contrast to the findings of Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) who identified vision as the most important key to successful leadership. The values component was the highest rated factor by both presidents and the quality team members with the people and motivation components receiving the lowest ratings (Haire).

Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) identified the college president as a leader of leaders. The president is not an isolated figure in an institution. He or she must rely

on the leadership ability of others at lower levels to deal with the growing complexities of institutional and departmental management. They noted that, in general, leadership in higher education is much more of a shared phenomenon than it is in profit focused organizations. "The chairs of academic departments are key leaders in any successful higher education institution and, without such leadership by chairs, no institution can be continuously successful" (pp. 17-18). The more recent studies of department chairs, however, have tended to focus on administrative aspects, such as the range of the chairs tasks and skills needed for effective implementation of these tasks (Bennett & Figuli, 1990; Creswell, Wheeler, Seagren, Egly, & Beyer, 1990), rather than leadership of departments.

Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) identified that the most commonly discussed topic in the limited research conducted dealing with department chairs was the successful chair's leadership behavior or style. Tucker (1992) suggested that the best kind of departmental leader is an "invisible leader" who uses power and authority unobtrusively. He notes that the department chairperson has a good deal of power and authority, but warned against using it heavy-handedly. Creswell et al. (1990) identified traits of successful department chairs. Specifically, the following traits were identified as being related to successful departmental leadership:

- Good interpersonal communication skills
- Concern about others
- Good listeners
- High academic credibility, and
- Achievement in research or teaching.

Additional research reported by Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) included the work of Groner (1978) and Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum (1989). Groner advised that chairs strive to achieve as good a match as possible between the department's situation and needs and their own leadership behavior. Department chairs should also address the career needs of individual faculty, remembering that some might be less experienced than others (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum). Leadership strategies that are appropriate and effective in one situation might be inappropriate or ineffective in another. Tucker (1992) supported this idea of situational leadership. Tucker presented behavioral leadership models based on previous research and described how each style might be appropriate for the academic department depending on the situation. Overall, however, the literature and hard research are severely lacking in attempts to match the duties and responsibilities of the chairperson with specific leadership strategies.

Lucas (1994) generalized research on transformational leadership as it may apply to department chairs. Specifically, she applied the transformational leadership characteristics identified by Kouzes and Posner (1987) for the use of department chairs. First, a transformational department chair knows "his or her organization's norms and culture very well, but will also be willing to risk challenging those norms when they are negative or dysfunctional" (p. 52). Lucas noted that challenging norms that are deeply embedded in the culture of the organization requires taking risks; thus, chairs must be courageous. They also help faculty to identify departmental norms and to ask whether these norms work to the betterment or detriment of the department. Chairs must be supportive and have a high tolerance for mistakes.

Second, in creating a shared vision, chairs must move their faculty toward a dream. Lucas (1994) iterates the importance of involving faculty in a carefully planned process of developing the departmental vision. This should be followed by the participative development of a departmental mission statement, goals, and action plans.

Third, transformational chairs empower faculty to act on innovative ideas. Chairs can empower faculty by listening to their ideas and asking key questions that cause faculty to think ideas through more completely. Lucas (1994) cited Bandura (1982) who suggested four means of providing empowering information to others: "by providing positive emotional support when others are under stress; by generally being supportive and offering words of encouragement; by providing successful role models; and by creating actual successful experiences or small steps taken toward the accomplishment of a goal" (p. 60). Lucas felt that creating and rewarding small wins was the most effective method of empowering others.

Fourth, department chairs must model the positive norms they would like to characterize the department culture. Demonstrating effective behaviors can, in part, lead to the establishment of a healthy, positive culture within the department. Lucas (1994) suggested that chairs be upbeat and positive in their thinking and in their conversation in order to create a climate that discourages dwelling on past negatives and encourages positive problem solving.

Finally, Lucas (1994) outlines the importance of the motivational and supportive behaviors of chairs. To encourage the heart of faculty, chairs should reinforce positive behavior and accomplishments. Transformational department chairs make people feel important and good about themselves. Lucus addressed conditions that motivate faculty.

> To feel intellectually and emotionally challenged by their work, to perceive opportunities for personal growth, to participate in decisions affecting their own development, to feel that they are part of an important on going enterprise, to know that they make a difference, and to be given recognition and visibility – to the extent that these conditions are true in academe, faculty will be motivated. (p.63)

It should be noted that Lucas made these applications of transformational leadership to the department chair based on her knowledge and wisdom – not on hard research. Documented identification of transformational leadership behaviors at the department chair level is severely lacking in the literature.

Tucker (1992) identified functions and skills that a department chair should be able to perform in order to bring about and deal with needed change. Department chairs should have the ability to: "provide guidance to the faculty in developing and updating department goals and objectives; assess local, regional, and national needs for education services provided by the department; develop action plans for the needed changes; and implement action plans for the needed changes" (pp. 80-81). Tucker gave the following examples of skills helpful to department chairs in dealing with change: the ability to design and implement strategy for bringing about needed change; the ability to develop long-range plans and strategies that enable a department to remain responsive to new and changing needs; and the ability to identify and develop programs to meet the professional development needs of faculty in times of retrenchment.

While there is significant research on leadership at the senior level of community colleges, there is a shortage of research documented in the literature concerning leadership at the department chair level. The information on departmental leadership previously presented in this paper is not specific to the community college. This

indicates a real need for research on leadership at the department chair level in community colleges.

Reengineering: Nature and Strategies

Hammer and Champy (1993) described reengineering as the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of work processes. The goal of reengineering is to achieve substantial improvements in key performance measures such as cost, quality, and speed. Tomasko (1993) pointed out that reengineering is a method for reinventing how to carry out a business process in contrast to modifying an existing process. He identified that an important aim of reengineering is to eliminate activities that do not contribute value to a process.

DuBrin (1996) noted that the best results of reengineering are achieved when it supports the strategy of the organization. "It involves such radical change that embarking upon reengineering is always a strategic decision – one with far-reaching implications" (p. 4). Dessler (1995) cited Nadler and Tushman (1990) who identified that "strategic organizational changes impact the entire organization and 'fundamentally redefine what the organization is or change its basic framework, including strategy, structure, people, processes and (in some cases) core values'" (p.502). Dessler noted that strategic changes are some of the riskiest changes to implement. Research results can be summarized as follows:

- Strategic organizational changes are usually triggered by factors outside the organization.
- Strategic organizational changes are often required for survival.

- Major, systemwide changes implemented under crisis, reactive conditions are highly risky.
- Systemwide strategic changes implemented in a planned, anticipatory fashion are usually more successful.

The potential for reengineering efforts to fail is great. Daft (1999) noted that by one estimate, nearly 70% of all reengineering projects fail.

Tomasko (1993) suggested five steps for implementing reengineering. (1) Give control of the process to one person. This person should have the authority to span departmental walls in order to facilitate the reengineering of the entire process. (2) Map the process. Reengineering requires that key processes be clearly identified and analyzed. (3) Eliminate potential trouble spots in the system. By eliminating steps in a process that have the potential to breed trouble, the entire process can be both simplified and improved. (4) Complete the task. Do not stop short of overhauling the process for constructive and needed change. (5) Make reengineering an ongoing process. Conditions continually change so it is usually necessary to reengineer again in the future.

DuBrin (1996) stated that many reengineering projects fail because only average performers are assigned to them. He provided a checklist of the skills and talents needed by people involved in reengineering. This checklist is as follows:

- ✓ Superior performance in general: Mediocrity is a negative factor, especially for complex activities such as process redesign.
- ✓ Desire to be part of a team having total responsibility for a task, including to be empowered.
- ✓ Desire for autonomy in conducting work, within the limits of wanting to be part of a team.
- ✓ Ability to think inductively as well as deductively. Ability to recognize solutions to problems people did not know they had.
- ✓ Solid communication skills, including speaking, writing, and listening.

- ✓ Mathematical and statistical skills, combined with information technology skills.
- ✓ Cross-functional skills, with an emphasis on working smoothly with people form other disciplines.
- ✓ Positive attitude toward quality, including conscientiousness and concern for detail. (pp. 55-56)

DuBrin (1996) stressed the importance of leadership in initiating and implementing reengineering. He identified four desirable leadership styles that are appropriate for reengineering: transformational, coaching, SuperLeadership, and entrepreneurial. Transformational leaders are needed to facilitate major changes. Coaches bring out the best in team members. SuperLeaders help team members to become self-reliant. And, entrepreneurial leaders are creative and take personal responsibility for the success of reengineering. DuBrin recognized that these four leadership styles were not mutually exclusive. He stated, "a perceptive leader can blend the various styles to suit the needs of the occasion" (p. 129). For the purpose of this paper, however, only transformational leadership for reengineering will be focused upon in detail.

DuBrin (1996) identified characteristics of the transformational leader that are invaluable in reengineering. Since major workplace innovations such as reengineering encompass sweeping changes, a high-ranking leader must point the way toward changes that will benefit the organization's members in the long run. "The transformational leader establishes a vision of how great the firm will be once the changes are complete" (p. 118). The charisma of the transformational leader attracts people who want to participate in the vision of where the organization is headed and how the new innovation will get them there. Transformational leaders use colorful language and exciting metaphors and analogies to inspire people. They avoid uninspiring language such as

references to job loss. Transformational leaders also inspire trust among their followers. "Workers throughout the organization believe so strongly in the integrity of charismatic leaders that they will risk their careers to pursue the chief's vision" (pp. 118-119). Transformational leaders have the ability to make group members feel capable and self-confident. They often do this by enabling people to succeed in relatively easy tasks, praising them for their accomplishments, and then moving them to a more difficult project. Transformational leaders are energetic and serve as role models for getting things done on time. This enables them to get more work accomplished in less time. Charismatic transformational leaders also have the ability to apply a human touch and express feelings openly. People respond to the emotional appeal of the transformational leader. Finally, transformational leaders are risk takers. Reengineering represents a large risk, but "no transformations, no breakthroughs, no heroics are possible without taking risks" (p. 121).

Conceptual Framework

Early trait and behavioral research studies attempted to identify the best leadership style regardless of the situation. While the idea of a best leadership style for all situations has been abandoned, traits and behaviors of leaders are used to describe leadership styles. Situational leadership theories recognized that the most effective leadership style depends on factors such as the characteristics of the leader, characteristics of followers, and characteristics of the particular situation in which leadership is to be exercised. The dyadic theory emphasized the individuality of the relationship between the leader and a follower. Transformational leadership theory proposed that leaders create a shared vision, maintain a supportive environment of open

communications in which followers can accomplish important work and feel appreciated. Transformational leadership has been identified as a very effective style of leading when change is a major situational characteristic. Studies of community college leaders support the use of transformational leadership in carrying out the mission and purpose of the institution in an environment of rapid change. Transformational leadership has also been identified as being appropriate for leading reengineering efforts.

The study was designed to identify the transformational leadership characteristics of supervisory level, community college department chairs identified as outstanding in leading their departments through a significant change. Certo (2000) identified three important categories of factors to be considered by supervisory leaders when identifying an effective leadership style. These were characteristics of the leader, characteristics of the followers, and characteristics of the situation. This is the same general idea proposed by Schein (1980) who suggested that the leadership situation is influenced by leader characteristics, characteristics of the subordinates, and by the task or situational characteristics. These three factors served as a frame for analyzing the transformational leadership traits and behaviors of outstanding community college department chairs.

Identified in Figure 4 are the characteristics of the leader, subordinate, and situation that were components of the study. Conclusions can be drawn regarding the transformational leadership behavior and traits of department chairs based on the characteristics of the situation and both the self-perception and follower perception of the department chair's vision, values orientation, people orientation, motivational orientation, and influence orientation. Characteristics of the situation include the significant change

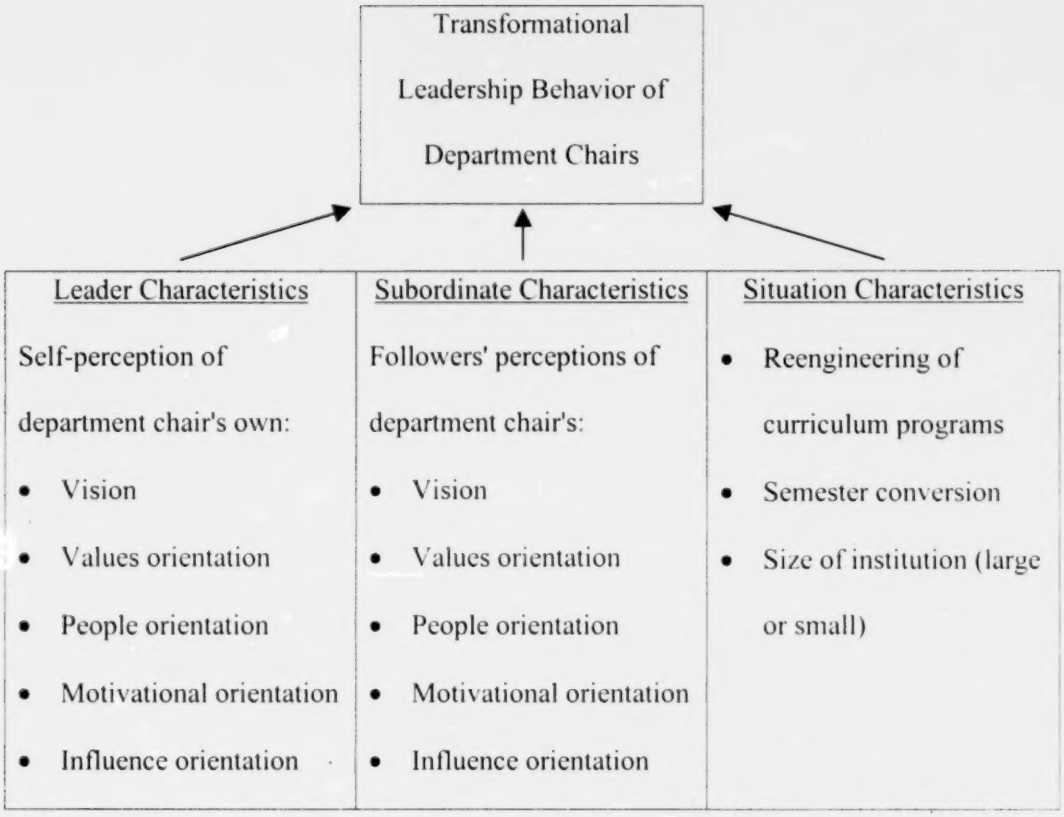

Figure 4. Characteristics affecting the transformational leadership behavior of department chairs.

brought about by the reengineering and semester conversion process at North Carolina community colleges. The size of the institution is another situational characteristic that serves as a factor for identifying possible differences in transformational leadership behavior of department chairs.

Summary

In summation, leadership involves influencing others toward the attainment of a goal and includes the qualities or characteristics of those who exercise this influence over others. Department chairs are key leaders in successful higher education institutions. They play an important role in bringing about needed change and the leadership ability of the department chair is a critical factor in the successful implementation of change.

Many theories of leadership have evolved over the years, but transformational leadership seems to be one of the more effective styles for leading significant change. Studies of community college administrators effective in leading change support this. The leadership behavior of department chairs, however, is under represented in the literature. Transformational leadership has also been identified as being appropriate for leading reengineering initiatives.

The conceptual framework of this study proposes that the leader's leadership style can be identified based upon characteristics of the leader, characteristics of the subordinates, and characteristics of the situation. The behavior of North Carolina community college department chairs in leading the reengineering and semester conversion process will be studied in relation to the department chairs' self-perceptions and their faculty's perceptions of factors comprising transformational leadership behavior. These factors will be studied in the context of a situation involving significant change.

Chapter Three

Methodology

This study was designed to investigate leadership styles of department chairpersons perceived by their instructional administrator to be outstanding at leading change at the departmental level in community colleges. Specifically, the study investigated the self-perceived leadership styles of department chairs identified as being outstanding in leading their departments through the semester conversion and reengineering process at North Carolina community colleges and the leadership styles of these department chairs as perceived by their faculty members. Differences between these department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' leadership styles were explored. Variations were also studied to determine if there were significant differences in congruence of perceptions between department chairs and faculty at large and small institutions.

Research Design

A descriptive design was used in the research study to examine the leadership styles of the department chairs as perceived by the department chairs and their faculty. Descriptive studies determine and report the way things currently are (Gay, 1987). Using the survey research method, perceived leadership characteristics of these department chairs were identified. Surveys are used to collect data from members of a population in order to determine the current status of that population with respect to one or more variables (Gay). The researcher examined the differences between department chair's perception of her or his leadership style and the leadership style of department chair as perceived by her or his faculty using Student's t-tests to determine if significant

differences existed. T-tests are "used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the means of two . . . samples at a selected probability level" (Gay, p. 552).

Population and Sample

Each of the 58 community colleges in North Carolina was invited to nominate one or two department chairs for the study. The population for the study consisted of 32 department chairs representing 26 different community colleges. All department chairs were identified by their College President or top instructional administrator as being exceptional at leading their departments through the semester conversion and reengineering process in North Carolina community colleges and the faculty reporting to these chairs. Instructional administrators were asked to make their nominations subjectively based on descriptive criteria. Specifically, they were asked to nominate one or two department chairs from their college who demonstrated the ability to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of their faculty by working with and through them to accomplish the semester conversion and reengineering. (For institutions not using the department chair title, nominations were to be persons who regularly gave direct leadership to faculty throughout the year and were heavily involved in leading semester conversion and reengineering.) The number of nominations from any single college was limited to one or two in order force nominators to choose only the top performer(s) meeting the criteria for the study.

All department chairs nominated were invited to participate in the study and were sent the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III (MCLQ-III) Self-Evaluation Form. Those willing to participate, as indicated by the return of a survey instrument,

became the sample for the study. Each full-time faculty member reporting to a nominated department chair was also surveyed using the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III (MCLQ-III) Team Member Form.

Instrumentation

The Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III (MCLQ-III) Self-Evaluation Form and the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III (MCLQ-III) Team Member Form (Baker, Roueche, & Rose, 1989; revised by Baker, 1994, 1996) were used as the primary data collection instruments in this study. These instruments contain 35 statements describing leadership attributes used to measure five clusters of leadership characteristics: an intuitive component (formerly identified as vision), people orientation, motivational orientation, influence orientation, and ethical (formerly values) orientation. Respondents rate each statement using a scale of 1 to 10. A rating of 1 indicates that a particular statement does not apply while a rating of 10 indicates that a statement applies perfectly. The 35 statements are randomly arranged and the five clusters are not identifiable on the instrument (see appendix for a listing of leadership behaviors measured by the MCLQ-III).

As described by Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) the transformational leadership thematic clusters are operationally defined as follows:

- Intuitive component (Vision): A leader conceptualized view of the future. While shared with others, the vision is the primary responsibility of the transformational leader.
- Influence orientation: The process of shared attention to problems and understanding the roles to be played in resolution. Generally this leads to

increased delegation and empowerment, resulting in self-actualization of both leaders and followers.

- People Orientation: The process of leader and follower interaction in which the team is considered a living system and where the strengths of each team member are maximized, while a strong focus on the individual is maintained.
- Motivational Orientation: The process whereby the mass of the organization accepts a new vision and mission. Followers are motivated to achieve and are excited about performance and results.
- Ethical (Values) Orientation: The moral fiber of the leader including her or his commitment, quality, integrity, trust, and respect through modeling. It is viewed as an ethical orientation that is morally accepting or uplifting for followers.

The original MCLQ instrument used a five-point Likert scale to record respondent ratings. The MCLQ-II required respondents to rate each statement using a "magnitude of estimation" range of 0 to 100. Other revisions included renaming the "Values Orientation" cluster as "Ethical Orientation," renaming "Vision" as "Intuitive Component," rewording questions in the "People Orientation," and adding another question (Holda, 1995). The revisions of the MCLQ-II resulting in the development of the MCLQ-III included minor refinements and changing the response range from 0 - 100 to 1 - 10 (Haire, 1997).

Revisions of the MCLQ instrument have resulted in improved reliability and validity. Previous researchers have used Chronbach's Alpha coefficients as a measure of internal consistancy for the instrument. In a study by Sheffield (1993) Cronbach's Alphas

for the MCLQ-II ranged from 0.74 to 0.89, which demonstrated an increase in reliability over the MCLQ. Given the manner in which the instrument was developed and the revisions since development, the instrument has face validity. Holda (1995), using factor analysis, determined construct validity for the five clusters. Haire (1997) found improved reliability for the MCLQ-III over the MCLQ-II. In her study, Chronbach's Alphas ranged from 0.85 to 0.89 for the Self-Evaluation Form and from 0.93 to 0.95 for the Team Member's Form. Hardy (1999), who used the MCLQ-III for a study of presidential leadership at a four-year college, reported similar findings with Chronbach's Alphas of 0.92 to 0.94.

Department Chairs were asked to complete the MCLQ-III Self-Evaluation Form. Scores for particular questions were combined to provide a cumulative score in each of the five leadership characteristic clusters. The MCLQ-III Team Member Form was administered to full-time departmental faculty reporting to the department chairs. Responding department chair's scores were compared with their faculty members' scores using t-tests to determine if significant differences exist for each of the five clusters.

Data Collection

The first phase of the study involved the identification of department chairs who were exceptional in leading their departments through the semester conversion and reengineering process. This phase took place in August 2000. A letter was sent to the President of each of the 58 community colleges in North Carolina identifying the importance of the study and requesting the college's participation. Community college presidents were selected as the initial contact with the idea that obtaining their support would increase participation in the study. The researcher and the two co-chairs of the

researcher's dissertation committee signed the letter. It was thought that having the co-chairs of the researcher's dissertation committee sign the letter would add legitimacy to the study and would be helpful in gaining participation by the college. In this letter, the president was asked to nominate, or have the chief instructional administrator at the college nominate, up to two department chairs who were perceived to be role models in leading their departments through this process. In particular, they were asked to nominate department chairs who have demonstrated the ability to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of their faculty by working with and through them to accomplish the semester conversion and reengineering. A form was provided for nominating the department chair(s). The nomination form asked for the name of the college, the name of the nominated department chair(s), her or his department, telephone number, and a list of full-time faculty reporting to the nominated department chair(s).

Thirty-five colleges responded to this request for nominations. This represented 60% of all community colleges in North Carolina. Of those responding, 29 nominated department chairs for the study. Three of these arrived too late to be included in the study resulting in a viable sample of 32 department chairs from 26 different community colleges. The other six colleges responding indicated that they did not have anyone meeting the criteria for the study.

Phase two of the study consisted of surveying the nominated department chairs and the full-time faculty reporting to them. In this phase, which took place during September and October 2000, the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III (MCLQ-III) Self-Evaluation Form was sent to the nominated department chairs and the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III (MCLQ-III) Team Member Form was

sent to the identified faculty members. The questionnaires were coded in order to match the department chair's responses with those of her or his faculty. Each questionnaire was enclosed with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, requesting the person's participation in the study by completing the MCLQ-III form, and promising anonymity of the responses. Also included were two copies of an Informed Consent Form for participants in research studies involving people as is required by North Carolina State University. The department chairs and their faculty members were asked to return the completed MCLQ-III along with a signed copy of the Informed Consent Form. A stamped, pre-addressed return envelope was included with each questionnaire.

In order to maximize the return of questionnaires, and thus increase response rates by department chairs and faculty, reminder letters were sent approximately two weeks after the initial mailing to those who had not yet responded. The reminder letters stressed the potential importance of study for improving departmental leadership in community colleges. Confidentiality of an individual's responses was once again assured.

Of the 32 department chairs nominated for the study, 27 chose to participate in the study by return of their completed questionnaires. This represented 84.4% of the identified population. Gay (1987) recommended a minimum sample of 20% for smaller populations in descriptive research studies. A total of 234 full-time faculty members reported to these 27 department chairs. The sample size ranged from as few as one to as many as 25 faculty participants per participating department chair. The variation in sample size was a result of the departmental structure at the institution. The average departmental size was 8.67 faculty per department.

The target response rate for the faculty completed team member forms was 70 percent. Gay (1987) stated that if the percentage of returns is not at least 70%, the validity of conclusions drawn from the study would be weak. A 70% return rate would have yielded 164 completed team member questionnaires. The actual number of team member questionnaires returned was 168 for a response rate of 71.8 percent.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed as follows: (1) demographic information was classified; (2) the mean responses of department chairs to the leadership statements were calculated; (3) the mean responses of faculty to the leadership statements were calculated; (4) the department chair's self-ratings were compared with ratings by the faculty; and (5) the ratings of department chairs and faculty were compared based on whether the department chair was at a large or small institution as determined by annual curriculum student enrollment at the college.

Frequency distributions and percentages were determined for demographic information provided by respondents. This information was grouped according to gender, ethnicity, age, length of time in current position, length of time at present institution, and highest level of education.

Comparisons were made between the perceptions of the self-perceptions of department chairs and the perceptions of the faculty. The means for responses on each of the five thematic clusters were calculated. They were then compared using Student's t-tests to determine if there were significant differences for each thematic cluster. "The t-test is used to determine whether two means are significantly different at a selected probability level" (Gay, 1987, p.390). According to Gay, a probability level of .05 is

reasonable for most research studies and is the most commonly used. At this probability level, there is only a 5% chance that variation in the means was a result of chance.

The division of responses into those from large and small institutions was based on the annual curriculum enrollment at the colleges for the 1999-2000 academic year. The median enrollment at the colleges making useable nominations for the study was 2894.5. The median enrollment at all colleges in the North Carolina Community College System was 2908.5 (NCCCS). Both of these median figures provided the same approximate dividing point of 2900 for determining large and small institutions. The annual curriculum enrollment at the colleges in the large college category ranged from 3033 to 13,343. At the smaller colleges, annual curriculum enrollment ranged from 1275 to 2756. Fifteen department chairs and 100 faculty members fell into the large institution category while 12 department chairs and 68 faculty members fell into the small institution category.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the self-perceived leadership styles of department chairs identified as being outstanding in leading their departments through the semester conversion and reengineering process at North Carolina community colleges?
2. What are the leadership styles of these department chairs identified as being outstanding in leading their departments through the semester conversion and reengineering process at North Carolina community colleges as perceived by the faculty members?

3. What differences are there between these department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' leadership styles?
4. Are there any differences in the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' leadership styles at large and small institutions?

The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

H_o^1: There is no statistically significant difference between department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' overall leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^2: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the intuitive component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^3: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the influence component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^4: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the people component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^5: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the motivational component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^6: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the ethical component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

H_o^7: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' overall leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^8: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the intuitive component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^9: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the influence component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^{10}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the people component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^{11}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the motivational component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^{12}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the ethical component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

H_o^{13}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' overall leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{14}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the intuitive component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{15}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the influence component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{16}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the people component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{17}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the motivational component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

H_o^{18}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the ethical component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

Null hypotheses were rejected if the corresponding t-test resulted in a $p < .05$ level of significance and were accepted if the p value was greater than .05.

Summary

This chapter presented the research methodology for the study. Specifically, it described the research design, the population for the study, the instrument for collecting data, the method of collecting data, and how the data were analyzed. The chapter concluded by restating the research questions and hypotheses proposed in Chapter One.

Chapter Four

Findings

This study investigated the transformational leadership behavior of North Carolina community college department chairs identified as being outstanding in leading their departments through the system-wide reengineering of programs and conversion from a quarter system to a semester system of operation. Thirty-two department chairs and 234 full-time faculty members reporting to these department chairs were surveyed using the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III survey instrument. Responses were obtained from 81.4 % of the department chairs nominated for the study and 71.8 % of the responding department chairs' full-time faculty. In this chapter, demographic characteristics of the respondents and results of the data analysis are presented.

Data from the MCLQ-III instruments were entered into an electronic spreadsheet, converted into text files, and compiled using SAS System software at North Carolina State University. This analysis yielded a demographic breakdown of the respondents and descriptive statistics, including mean results, for the five thematic clusters (intuitive, influence, people, motivational, and ethical) and an overall mean. The means were then entered into an Excel spreadsheet and analyzed for differences using two sample t-tests assuming unequal variances.

Procedurally, data were analyzed as follows: (1) demographic information was classified; (2) the mean responses of department chairs to the leadership statements were calculated; (3) the mean responses of faculty to the leadership statements were calculated; (4) the self-ratings of all department chairs were compared with ratings by all the faculty;

and (5) the ratings of department chairs and faculty were compared based on whether the department chair was at a large or small institution as determined by annual curriculum student enrollment at the college.

Demographic Analysis

Frequency distributions and percentages were determined for demographic information provided by respondents. This information was grouped according to gender, ethnicity, age, length of time in current position, length of time at present institution, and highest level of education. Separate summaries for department chairs and faculty respondents are presented in Tables 3 and 4. The information is presented in the following categories: large colleges, small colleges, and all colleges. The dividing point for large and small colleges was annual curriculum enrollment of 2900 students based on the median of curriculum enrollment at the colleges.

There were several notable demographic characteristics of the department chairs responding to the survey as indicated in Table 3. While overall they were equally divided in gender, most at smaller institutions were female (58.3 %) and most at larger institutions were male (57.1 %). The respondents were predominantly Caucasian (92 %). Overall, more than 61 % were in the 50 to 59 age category, but 41.7 % of respondents from smaller colleges were 49 or younger as compared with only 21.4 % at larger colleges. A master's degree was the highest level of education for 84.6 % of the department chairs. Only 7.7 % hold doctoral degrees. Over three-fourths have been at their institutions for more than 15 years with 61.6 % being in their current positions between 5 and 14 years.

Table 3

Demographic characteristics of department chairs

Demographic Variable	Small Colleges		Large Colleges		All Colleges	
	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent
Gender						
Female	7	58.3	6	42.9	13	50.0
Male	5	41.7	8	57.1	13	50.0
Ethnicity						
African-American	1	9.1	-	-	1	4.0
Asian	-	-	1	7.1	1	4.0
Caucasian	10	90.9	13	92.9	23	92.0
Age						
29 or less	-	-	-	-	-	-
30-39	-	-	1	7.1	1	3.8
40-49	5	41.7	2	14.3	7	26.9
50-59	6	50.0	10	71.4	16	61.5
60 or more	1	8.3	1	7.1	2	7.7
Education Level						
Doctoral degree	1	8.3	1	7.1	2	7.7
Master's degree	10	83.3	12	85.7	22	84.6
Bachelors degree	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	1	8.3	1	7.1	2	7.7

Table 3 (continued)

Demographic Variable	Small Colleges		Large Colleges		All Colleges	
	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent
Time at this institution						
0-4 years	-	-	-	-	-	-
5-9 years	1	8.3	1	7.1	2	7.7
10-14 years	3	25.0	1	7.1	4	15.4
15-19 years	4	33.3	4	28.6	8	30.8
20 or more years	4	33.3	8	57.1	12	46.2
Time in current position						
0-4 years	1	8.3	2	14.3	3	11.5
5-9 years	3	25.0	5	35.7	8	30.8
10-14 years	3	25.0	5	35.7	8	30.8
15-19 years	1	8.3	-	-	1	3.8
20 or more years	4	33.3	2	14.3	6	23.1

Note: n for each demographic factor varies due to missing responses to certain survey items.

Table 4

Demographic characteristics of faculty

Demographic Variable	Small Colleges		Large Colleges		All Colleges	
	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent
Gender						
Female	37	56.9	57	57.0	94	57.0
Male	28	43.1	43	43.0	71	43.0
Ethnicity						
African-American	2	9.1	4	4.1	6	3.6
American Indian	-	-	1	1.0	1	0.6
Asian	2	3.0	-	-	2	1.2
Caucasian	60	89.6	91	92.9	151	91.5
Hispanic	1	1.5	-	-	1	0.6
Other	2	3.0	2	2.0	4	2.4
Age						
29 or less	4	6.1	3	3.1	7	4.3
30-39	14	21.2	21	21.6	35	21.5
40-49	24	36.4	38	39.2	62	38.0
50-59	17	25.8	30	30.9	47	28.8
60 or more	7	10.6	5	5.2	12	7.4

Table 4 (continued)

Demographic Variable	Small Colleges		Large Colleges		All Colleges	
	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent
Education Level						
Doctoral degree	1	1.5	6	6.1	7	4.2
Master's degree	40	59.7	55	55.6	95	57.2
Bachelors degree	16	23.9	22	22.2	38	22.9
Associate's degree	5	7.5	11	11.1	16	9.6
High school	2	3.0	2	2.0	4	2.4
Other	3	4.5	3	3.0	6	3.6
Time at this institution						
0-4 years	19	29.7	30	31.9	49	31.0
5-9 years	12	18.8	19	20.2	31	19.6
10-14 years	7	10.9	18	19.1	25	15.8
15-19 years	9	14.1	10	10.6	19	12.0
20 or more years	17	26.6	17	18.1	34	21.5
Time in current position						
0-4 years	20	30.8	39	39.0	59	35.8
5-9 years	15	23.1	19	19.0	34	20.6
10-14 years	11	16.9	19	19.0	30	18.2
15-19 years	8	12.3	12	12.0	20	12.1
20 or more years	11	16.9	11	11.0	22	13.3

Note: n for each demographic factor varies due to missing responses to certain survey items.

The demographic characteristics of faculty respondents from large and small institutions tended to indicate greater homogeneity than was present for department chairs. As indicated in Table 4, 57 % were female and 43 % male. As with department chairs, most (91.5 %) were Caucasian. Nearly 64 % were 49 or younger. 61.4 % have a master's degree or higher. Most of the faculty members (56.4 %) have been in their current positions less than 10 years.

Analysis of Mean Responses

The means and standard deviations for the responses were calculated for each of the five thematic clusters, as well as overall. Means and standard deviations for department chairs and faculty are presented in Table 5. It is apparent that, in general, department chairs rated themselves slightly higher, both overall and on each of the five transformational leadership attributes, than did the faculty. This was generally true, regardless of the college size, with the only exception being the intuition component for chairs at larger colleges. There was also less variation in the perceptions of department chairs than among the faculty members. Regardless of college size, the standard deviations for the department chairs' means were smaller than the corresponding standard deviation for the faculty means. A smaller standard deviation indicates less variation from the mean while a larger standard deviation indicates that the scores are more spread out (Gay, 1987).

Table 5

Means and standard deviations for transformational leadership clusters and overall

	All Colleges		Large Colleges		Small Colleges	
	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty
Cluster	Mean/SD	Mean/SD	Mean/SD	Mean/SD	Mean/SD	Mean/SD
Intuition	8.29/1.04	8.16/1.67	8.15/1.16	8.24/1.74	8.45/0.90	8.05/1.57
Influence	8.60/0.97	8.29/1.53	8.53/0.96	8.45/1.52	8.69/1.02	8.05/1.51
People	8.67/0.88	8.47/1.53	8.62/0.76	8.55/1.53	8.72/1.05	8.36/1.55
Motivation	8.43/0.91	8.08/1.73	8.21/0.89	8.18/1.75	8.51/0.95	7.93/1.70
Ethical	9.13/0.77	8.56/1.59	9.04/0.77	8.77/1.44	9.25/0.80	8.24/1.76
Overall	8.61/0.85	8.31/1.49	8.51/0.83	8.44/1.47	8.73/0.89	8.13/1.50

Information from Table 5 clearly indicates that department chairs rated themselves highest on the ethical cluster. The means for this cluster were over "9" at both large and small colleges. It was the only cluster with a mean of "9" or above. Regardless of institutional size, the means of the five thematic clusters for department chairs' self-perceptions ranked in the following order: 1) Ethical, 2) People, 3) Influence, 4) Motivation, and 5) Intuition.

Overall, faculty rated the ethical cluster as their department chairs' strongest transformational leadership characteristic. The ethical cluster was ranked first at large colleges and second at smaller colleges. The faculty means for the five thematic clusters for department chairs at large colleges ranked the in the following order: 1) Ethical, 2)

People, 3) Influence, 4) Intuition, and 5) Motivation. There was only slight variation in the ranking by faculty at smaller colleges. At smaller college, faculty means provided the following ranking: 1) People, 2) Ethical, 3) Influence, 3) Intuition (tie), and 5) Motivation. The faculty means at smaller colleges were consistently lower than the faculty means at larger colleges.

The overall means and means for the responses on each of the five transformational leadership clusters were compared using Student's t-tests to determine whether there were significant differences between the department chairs' perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions. The t-test is used to compare two groups of independent means and determine whether the means are significantly different beyond what would be expected as a result of chance (Gay, 1987). The level of significance for these tests was $p < .05$, meaning that there was less than a 5% chance that differences in the means could have happened by chance.

Tests of hypotheses

Null hypotheses were rejected if the corresponding t-test resulted in a $p < .05$ level of significance and were accepted if the p value was greater than .05.

H_o^1: There is no statistically significant difference between department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' overall leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

Table 6 displays the statistical analysis for all MCLQ-III items for all colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .155, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis one cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant

difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' overall leadership style.

Table 6

Hypothesis test for overall leadership style at all colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
27	168	8.607	8.319	0.725	2.223	1.440	56	0.155

H_0^3: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the intuitive component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

The intuition cluster measured the department chairs' attributes that enable them to conceptualize and believe they can shape the future. Specific MCLQ-III questions assessed whether the leader: makes changes when appropriate, is able to visualize a specific future for the organization, employs quick and ready insights, is committed to innovative action to achieve goals, is able to shape the future of the institution, enables followers to share in a vision of the future, and is able to communicate a sense of mission to others.

Table 7 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the intuition component for all colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .607, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis two cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that

there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' intuition orientation.

Table 7

Hypothesis test for intuition cluster at all colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
27	168	8.286	8.162	1.091	2.799	0.517	51	0.607

H_o^3: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the influence component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

The influence cluster measured the department chairs' ability to influence and empower faculty. Specific MCLQ-III questions assessed whether the leader: empowers followers appropriately, is open to the influence of followers, exerts appropriate influence on followers, involves followers appropriately in decision making, is visible to those to be influenced, considers followers' needs, and employs appropriate power to influence performance.

Table 8 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the influence component for all colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .156, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis three cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' influence orientation.

Table 8

Hypothesis test for influence cluster at all colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
27	168	8.603	8.285	0.947	2.310	1.440	49	0.156

H_o^4: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the people component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

The people cluster measured the department chairs' ability to understand, respect, and reward faculty. Specific MCLQ-III questions assessed whether the leader: seeks followers' opinions, accommodates individual needs, understands followers, considers needs of followers, respects individual differences of followers, considers needs of followers, and rewards followers appropriately.

Table 9 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the people component for all colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .277, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis four cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' people orientation.

Table 9

Hypothesis test for people cluster at all colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
27	168	8.666	8.434	0.777	2.664	1.098	60	0.277

H_0^5: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the motivational component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

The motivation cluster measured the department chairs' ability to motivate and inspire others. Specific MCLQ-III questions assessed whether the leader: inspires followers in appropriate ways, provides followers incentives to excel, motivates by clarifying expectations, motivates followers to action, motivates followers to use creative skills, galvanizes a group to action, and stimulates change when needed.

Table 10 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the motivation component for all colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .213, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis five cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' motivation orientation.

Table 10

Hypothesis test for motivation cluster at all colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
27	168	8.354	8.074	0.862	2.991	1.258	60	0.213

H_o^6: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the ethical component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III.

The ethical cluster measured the department chairs' ability to both apply and encourage ethical development and standards. Specific MCLQ-III questions assessed whether the leader: applies ethical standards to the job, encourages the ethical development of followers, influences followers through personal behavior, conforms to a standard of what is right, seeks to build an ethical environment, helps followers conform to a standard of what is right and good, and is a principled leader.

Table 11 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the ethical component for all colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .006, which is less than .05, then null hypothesis six is rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is a significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' ethical orientation.

Table 11

Hypothesis test for ethical cluster at all colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
27	168	9.098	8.551	0.603	2.533	2.830	68	0.006

H_o^7: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' overall leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

Table 12 displays the statistical analysis for all MCLQ-III items for larger colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .812, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis seven cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' overall leadership style at larger institutions.

Table 12

Hypothesis test for overall leadership style at large colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
15	100	8.513	8.450	0.696	2.188	0.240	29	0.812

H_o^8: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the intuitive component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

Table 13 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the intuition component for large colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .80, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis eight cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' intuition orientation at larger colleges.

Table 13

Hypothesis test for intuition cluster at large colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
15	100	8.152	8.241	1.348	3.033	-0.256	25	0.800

H_o^9: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the influence component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

Table 14 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the influence cluster for large colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .755, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis nine cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' influence orientation at larger colleges.

Table 14

Hypothesis test for influence cluster at large colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
15	100	8.533	8.442	0.926	2.294	0.315	26	0.755

H_o^{10}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the people component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

Table 15 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the people cluster for large colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .599, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis ten cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' people orientation at larger colleges.

Table 15

Hypothesis test for people cluster at large colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
15	100	8.619	8.482	0.579	2.861	0.530	39	0.599

H_o^{11}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the motivation component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

Table 16 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the motivation cluster for large colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .891, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis eleven cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' motivation orientation at larger colleges.

Table 16

Hypothesis test for motivation cluster at large colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
15	100	8.209	8.169	0.800	3.057	0.138	33	0.891

H_o^{12}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the ethical component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at larger institutions.

Table 17 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the ethical cluster for large colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .408, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis twelve cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' ethical orientation at larger colleges.

Table 17

Hypothesis test for ethical cluster at large colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
15	100	8.976	8.772	0.580	2.063	0.839	32	0.408

H_o^{13}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' overall leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

Table 18 displays the statistical analysis for all MCLQ-III items for smaller colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .0697, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis seven cannot be rejected. It must be noted, however, that the p value in this case is very near the .05 probability level. But, one cannot conclude that there is a significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' overall leadership style at smaller institutions.

Table 18

Hypothesis test for overall leadership style at small colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
12	68	8.726	8.126	0.800	2.244	0.240	24	0.0697

H_o^{14}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the intuitive component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

Table 19 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to intuition for small colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .219, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis fourteen cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' intuition orientation at smaller colleges.

Table 19

Hypothesis test for intuition cluster at small colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
12	68	8.452	8.046	0.808	2.472	1.261	25	0.219

H_o^{15}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the influence component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

Table 20 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the influence component for small colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .081, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis fifteen cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' influence orientation at smaller colleges.

Table 20

Hypothesis test for influence cluster at small colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
12	68	8.690	8.054	1.046	2.279	1.831	21	0.081

H_0^{16}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the people component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

Table 21 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the people component for small colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .322, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis sixteen cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' people orientation at smaller colleges.

Table 21

Hypothesis test for people cluster at small colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
12	68	8.724	8.364	1.092	2.403	1.014	21	0.322

H_o^{17}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the motivational component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

Table 22 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the motivation component for small colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .097, which is greater than .05, then null hypothesis seventeen cannot be rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is no significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' motivation orientation at smaller colleges.

Table 22

Hypothesis test for motivation cluster at small colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
12	68	8.536	7.933	0.954	2.903	1.723	25	0.097

H_o^{18}: There is no statistically significant difference between the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the ethical component of the department chairs' leadership styles as measured by the MCLQ-III at smaller institutions.

Table 23 displays the statistical analysis for MCLQ-III items related to the ethical component for small colleges. Since the t-test resulted in a p value of .0025, which is less than .05, then null hypothesis eighteen is rejected. Therefore, it is concluded that there is

a significant difference between department chairs' perceptions and faculty members' perceptions of the chairs' ethical orientation at smaller colleges.

Table 23

Hypothesis test for ethical cluster at small colleges

Observations		Mean		Variance		Results of t-test		
Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	Chairs	Faculty	t	df	p
12	68	9.250	8.225	0.642	3.085	3.260	34	0.0025

Summary

In Chapter Four, results and findings of the study were presented. Demographics of participants in the study were displayed. The results of the data analyses conducted to test the eighteen hypotheses serving as the framework of the study were presented. In order to draw comparisons, data and analyses were presented in three categories: small colleges, larger colleges, and all colleges combined. This information was used to formulate the conclusions and recommendations that are presented in Chapter Five.

Statistical analysis of the data resulted in the rejection of two and the acceptance of 16 of the 18 null hypotheses. No significant differences in department chair and faculty perceptions of the chairs' transformational leadership style emerged at large institutions. They were generally in agreement on each transformational leadership component and overall.

Five of the six null hypotheses related to smaller colleges were not rejected; although, three of those accepted were very close to the $p = .05$ level. Those accepted as

having no significant differences were the intuitive, influence, people, and motivational clusters, and the overall rating. There was a significant difference in the perceptions of department chairs and faculty at smaller institutions for the ethical component.

At all colleges combined, the perceptions of department chairs and faculty on the ethical cluster were significantly different. Thus, the related null hypothesis was rejected. Again, there were no significant differences for the intuitive, influence, people, and motivational clusters, and the overall rating.

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to investigate the transformational leadership style of North Carolina Community college department chairs identified by their top instructional administrator(s) as being outstanding in leading their departments through the statewide reengineering of curriculum programs and conversion to a semester system. Instructional administrators were given the opportunity to nominate one or two department chairs from their college who demonstrated the ability to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of their faculty by working with and through them to accomplish the semester conversion and reengineering.

A basic premise of this study was that if one wishes to understand exceptional performance, one must study exceptional performers. The idea was to identify and describe the perceived leadership styles of outstanding department chairpersons, seen as being role models by their instructional administrators in leading a significant change event. Four research questions guided the study. 1) What are the self-perceived leadership styles of these department chairs identified by their instructional administrator as being outstanding in leading their departments through the semester conversion and reengineering process at North Carolina community colleges? 2) What are the leadership styles of these department chairs identified as being outstanding in leading their departments through the semester conversion and reengineering process at North Carolina community colleges as perceived by the faculty members? 3) What differences are there between these department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' leadership styles? 4) Are there any differences in

the department chairs' self-perceptions and the faculty members' perceptions of the department chairs' leadership styles at large and small institutions?

In this study, only the department chairs' perceived leadership behavior was studied. Although the chairs participating in the study were identified as being outstanding at leading a specific change event, their actual performance was not studied. This study was also limited to assessing the perceived transformational leadership behaviors of department chairs at North Carolina community colleges. The findings of this study may be assumed to be applicable only for chairs at North Carolina community colleges. The focus was on the department chairs' behaviors with their faculty members and did not measure the extent to which department chairs practiced leadership and influence with other groups beyond their faculty.

Both department chairs nominated for the study by their instructional administrator, and full-time faculty members reporting to the nominated chairs were surveyed. Data were collected in the form of self-perceptions of the department chairs' leadership behavior and the perceptions of the department chairs by their faculty. It should be noted that the survey took place following the end of the second full year of implementation of the semester conversion and reengineering. There may have been different results if the study had been conducted simultaneously with the semester conversion and reengineering of curriculum programs.

The data collection instrument was the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire-III. The MCLQ-III was designed to measure respondents' perceptions of a leader's behavior in five categories: intuition, influence orientation, people orientation, motivational orientation, and ethical orientation. The intuitive component consists of the

chairs' ability to conceptualize and shape the future, to take appropriate risks to facilitate change, to commit to a course of action, to articulate a sense of mission, and to cause followers to share a vision of the future (Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989). The influence component is concerned with the chairs' ability to appropriately delegate authority and responsibility, to cause the faculty to feel empowered, to involve the faculty in decision making, to enable them to work together to solve problems, to communicate effectively, to keep in touch with the faculty, and to display a bias for action (Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989). The people component centers around the department chairs' ability to understand, respect, and reward faculty, seek their input, and to accommodate their individual needs (Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989). The motivation component consists of the department chairs' ability to motivate the faculty to commitment and action, to inspire them to use their creative skills and give extra effort, to enhance the development of the faculty, and motivate by clarifying expectations (Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989). The ethical orientation of department chairs relates to their ability to both apply and encourage ethical development and standards, to demonstrate consistent judgment, and lead by example (Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989).

Participants rated the applicability of 35 randomly listed statements on the MCLQ-III on a scale of 1-10. There were seven statements for each of the five transformational leadership categories measured by the MCLQ-III. Data collected in the study were compiled and analyzed in aggregate and by institutional size. Mean responses from department chairs and faculty were compared to see if significant differences existed. In this chapter, conclusions drawn from the findings of the current study will be presented. In addition, recommendations for practice and further study will be presented.

Conclusions

1. Department chairs and faculty at both large and small colleges perceive the chairs to possess or exhibit transformational leadership attributes at a similar level for the intuitive, influence, people, and motivation clusters. Consistency in perceptions also existed for the ethical dimension at large institutions. This similarity in perceptions is consistent with the conclusions drawn by Holda (1995) and Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) who studied community college presidents. They found that perceptions of leadership behavior were congruent for the leader and immediate followers.

2. Community college department chairs, who are recognized by their instructional administrators to be transformational leaders, pay particular attention to their ethical behavior. This ethical orientation appears to be recognized by their faculty. In this study, the ethical dimension emerged as the transformational leadership attribute with the highest mean rating for department chairs regardless of institutional size. Haire (1997) reported similar findings in her study of presidential leadership at colleges engaged in a quality initiative. Daft (1999) stated, "leaders can create and sustain a climate that emphasizes ethical behavior for all employees" (p. 197). Having shared, internalized values enables leaders to generate a high level of trust and respect from employees. Daft goes on to say that employees learn about values from observing leaders, which points out the importance of demonstrating ethical behavior. This also puts department chairs in the unique position of supporting and balancing ethical values from three sources - their senior administrators, their faculty, and within themselves.

3. The outstanding department chairs studied are very much people oriented. They are considerate of faculty needs and have the ability to understand, respect, and

reward the faculty. Holda (1995) concluded that "leaders who motivate and influence their followers by considering and meeting their needs, by allowing empowerment and influence, may indeed be much more effective than those leaders who rule by fear or intimidation, or use contingent systems of punishment and reward" (p. 114). As stated by Hilgert and Haimann (1991), "the success of a supervisor . . . will usually reside in a supervisor's ability to blend the requirements for high work performance with a personal approach to employees that recognizes and respects them as human beings" (p. 21).

4. Although the department chairs studied were perceived by their instructional administrators to be outstanding at leading their departments through a significant change, they do not necessarily perceive themselves to be in a position to initiate organizational change. In contrast to previous studies of presidential leadership (Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989; Haire, 1997; and Hardy, 1999), the intuitive cluster emerged as the lowest self-rated transformational leadership attribute measured by the MCLQ-III. In this case, the change was one mandated to the colleges. Dessler (1995) indicated that managers below the senior management level in an institution often feel that they are not in position to initiate and lead organizational change. "They may even feel more like unwitting participants or observers in the changes occurring around them" (p. 518).

5. Department chairs perceive themselves to possess or exhibit the transformational leadership attributes at a slightly higher level than do their faculty members. They perceived themselves as being more intuitive, more influential, more people oriented, more motivational, and more ethical than did their faculty. Although significant differences were not found in the mean ratings for four of the five

transformational leadership attributes measured by the MCLQ-III, department chairs tended to rate themselves slightly higher, both overall and on each of the transformational leadership attributes, than did the faculty. This was generally true in both large and small institutions. This finding was consistent with previous studies using the MCLQ (Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989; Haire, 1997; and Hardy, 1999).

6. Faculty members have varying views and opinions of their department chair's leadership style. Consistent with the study by Haire (1997), greater variation existed for faculty members' perceptions of their department chairs' transformational leadership attributes than did for department chairs' self-perceptions of their transformational leadership attributes. The wide variation present in faculty perceptions of the department chairs implies that department chairs do not interact and display their leadership behaviors equally with all individual faculty members. This is likely due to the dyadic relationships that develop between the department chair and her or his individual faculty members. The idea of dyadic leadership is that a leader will develop different relationships with different followers because particular leadership traits are neither broadcast to nor received by each subordinate equally (Daft, 1999). This is consistent with the people orientation of transformational leadership in which the department chair would recognize and accommodate the individual needs of their faculty members.

7. Department chairs and their faculty members at North Carolina community colleges with an enrollment of less than 3,000 students exhibited greater differences in perceptions for each of the five transformational leadership clusters than did those at larger institutions. Faculty at smaller colleges consistently rated their department chairs lower than did their counterparts at larger institutions. Although the differences in

perceptions at small colleges were significant only for the ethical transformational leadership cluster, if the selected alpha had been p = .10 instead of p = .05, significant differences would have emerged for the motivation and influence clusters, as well as overall. The general disparity in ratings tends to support the finding of Holda (1995) that there is greater congruence between leaders and followers perceptions at larger institutions than at smaller institutions. Holda concluded that this might be due to structural differences between large and small institutions. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1995), larger organizations tend to be more formalized and differentiated. They tend to develop added levels of hierarchy and more specialized divisions. Department chairs in smaller institutions often have broad areas of responsibility; so, there would be less homogeneity in departmental functions and among the subject matter orientation of the faculty. Thus, department chairs at larger colleges would tend to have more in common with their faculty than department chairs at smaller colleges.

Recommendations for Practice

There was shortage of documented research in the literature concerning leadership at the department chair level. Particularly lacking was information on departmental leadership in community colleges. The results of this study have implications for leadership at the departmental level in community colleges and add to the body of knowledge related to departmental leadership in higher education. Specifically, the information derived from this study is important to department chairs who are faced with managing change. This information is also valuable to instructional administrators involved in selecting persons for department chair positions and working with and through these persons to implement change.

Four research questions were initially posed to guide this study. The first two questions centered on identifying the transformational leadership behavior, as perceived by department chairs and their faculty, of department chairs who were outstanding in leading their departments through a significant change event. The second two questions focused on identifying any differences in the perceptions of department chairs and their faculty overall and based on institutional size. The findings of the study indicate that department chairs and their faculty, for the most part, share similar perceptions of the department chairs' transformational leadership attributes.

1. Departmental leaders selected to lead significant change should be perceived as being highly ethical, both by themselves and by their followers. They should apply and conform to ethical standards. As ethical leaders, they should encourage and influence the ethical development and behavior of their faculty members and help the faculty conform to a standard of what is right and good. If department chairs want ethical behavior out of their faculty, then they need to lead by example and model ethical conduct. Department chairs should always strive to make decisions that reflect appropriate ethical standards - both personal and organizational.

2. Department chairs should use good people skills when leading change. They should seek the opinions of the faculty and endeavor to understand, respect, and consider the needs of faculty members. They should reward faculty members appropriately. This would be particularly important at smaller colleges where there is less homogeneity among the department chairs and the faculty members. The ability of department chairs to practice good people skills would appear to be closely connected to the their ability to use influence and empower faculty.

3. Senior administrators should encourage department chairs to buy into plans for change and motivate them to work as an extension of senior level administration. Outstanding department chairs are perceived as good implementers of change by their senior administrators, but may not be in a position to initiate organizational change. Department chairs do not perceive, to a great degree, that they are able to conceptualize and shape the future of the organization from the department chair position. If the goal of senior administration is to encourage an entrepreneurial approach to change at the departmental level, then they should eliminate any roadblocks the chair may encounter as the changes are planned and implemented.

4. Department chairs need to exhibit confidence in their leadership ability to be most successful at leading significant change. Confidence comes with experience and success. Administrators should provide and potential department chairs should seek opportunities to be successful and gain experience in leading. This appears to be a key to having outstanding transformational leaders.

5. Because of the dyadic nature of relationships between leaders and followers, department chairs should seek to establish mutually beneficial, individual relationships with their faculty. They need to identify the particular needs and talents of their individual faculty members and work with them to bring out their best performance.

6. It is recommended that department chairs get with their faculty members and discuss the nature of their jobs and relationships that exist. Open communication and discussion of gaps in perceptions will improve understanding for both the department chair and faculty members. The result should be a reduction in the perceptual differences that currently exist between chairs and their faculty.

7. Because of differing dynamics in large and small institutions, department chairs at smaller institutions should pay particular attention to the individual needs and differences among the faculty. With less homogeneity in departmental functions and the subject matter orientation of the faculty, the challenges of leadership are often greater. Chairs should be sure to use a participative style in planning and implementing change to take advantage of the diversity that exists and to ensure that all faculty are involved in the change process.

Recommendations for Further Study

1. This study was limited to North Carolina community colleges. It should be replicated covering several states in order to obtain a more diverse population and a more substantial database for transformational leadership styles of community college department chairs. Such a study would help determine the degree to which the current study could be generalized to a broader base of community college department chairs.

2. A study comparing the transformational leadership behavior of department chairs to that of higher administrators could provide valuable information on the differences in leadership behavior necessary for success at different levels of the college. Since leadership is considered to be situational, the demands at each level could result in differences in the perceived importance of the leadership behaviors measured by the MCLQ-III.

3. This study should be replicated at four-year colleges to provide a comparison of departmental leadership at senior institutions and community colleges. Since the mission and priorities of these institutions are different, it may be that the different demands at

each type of institution result in different priorities related to appropriate leadership behavior.

4. This study identified a significant difference between the perceptions of department chairs and their faculty at smaller institutions for the ethical cluster. Additional study is needed to verify and account for why this difference exists at smaller institutions but not at larger institutions.

5. The results of this study implied the existence of dyadic relationships among department chairs and their individual faculty members. These relationships should be explored to determine the types of dyadic relationships that exist. A study such as this could identify the nature and types of exchanges that take place between department chairs and their faculty members and explain why there was greater variation in faculty perceptions than in the perceptions of department chairs. It may determine if department chairs have more influence over, and greater impact on, some faculty members than others.

6. Demographic characteristics of the respondents were collected in this study in order to describe the population being studied. No analysis was conducted of the relationship between these demographic characteristics and the findings. There could possibly be significant differences that emerge for differing demographic characteristics. A study that examines the transformational leadership behaviors of department chairs based on certain demographic characteristics may produce interesting results.

7. Interesting demographic differences were noted for department chairs at large and small institutions. For example, more of the outstanding department chairs were female at smaller institutions while more were male at larger institutions. Also,

department chairs at smaller colleges were younger overall than their counterparts at larger colleges. A study should be conducted that examines these differences and why they exist.

Concluding Remarks

Situated between the faculty and higher administrators in community colleges, department chairs are in a unique position to facilitate change. As Tucker (1992) noted, the chairperson's role is central to the planning and implementing needed change. How well changes are developed and implemented in a college depend heavily on the leadership of department chairs (Lucus, 1994).

This study identified several important aspects of transformational leadership at the departmental level in community colleges. Department chairs who lead significant change: 1) are perceived as being highly ethical, 2) possess good people skills and use them to influence and empower faculty, 3) are good implementers of change, but do not necessarily perceive themselves as initiators of organizational change, 4) have confidence in their leadership abilities, 5) develop individual relationships with their faculty members in order to carry out the work of the department, and 6) pay particular attention to the organizational dynamics that can affect leadership.

Much of what was discovered in this research study tended to support existing literature on leadership. For example, the importance of people skills and having confidence in one's own ability are often mentioned as important leadership qualities. The situational nature of leadership is also emphasized by this study. The importance of organizational dynamics and individual leader-follower relationships to effective leadership were evident in the findings.

The study also adds to existing literature in several areas. While the importance of ethics is often mentioned in the literature, this study called attention to the department chair's ethical orientation as an aspect in leading faculty through significant change. Ethics was perceived to be central to leadership and affects the entire leader/follower relationship. It also calls attention to the differing dynamics operating at large and small community colleges. And finally, while Tucker (1992) noted that department chairs are central to the planning and implementing needed change, this study indicated that they do not perceive themselves to be initiators of organizational change. Yet, it is apparent that, as Lucas (1994) said, how well changes are developed and implemented in a college depend heavily on the leadership of department chairs.

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APPENDIX

Leadership Behaviors Measured by the MCLQ-III

Leadership Behaviors Measured by the

Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III (MCLQ-III)

Intuition Cluster:

- Leader makes changes when appropriate
- Leader is able to visualize a specific future for the organization
- Leader involves followers appropriately in decision making
- Leader is committed to innovative action to achieve goals
- Leader believes that he or she will be able to shape the future of this institution
- Leader enables followers to share in a vision of the future
- Leader motivates followers to use their creative skills

Influence Cluster:

- Leader empowers followers appropriately
- Leader is open to the influence of followers
- Leader believes that he of she exerts appropriate influence on followers
- Leader involves followers appropriately in decision making
- Leader is visible to those he or she is attempting to influence
- Leader empowers followers through tasking and consideration of their needs
- Leader employs appropriate power to influence the performance of others

People Cluster:

- Leader seeks the opinions of followers
- Leader accommodates the individual needs of followers
- Leader understands the values of followers
- Leader considers the needs of his or her followers

- Leader respects individual differences among followers
- Leader considers the needs of his or her followers
- Leader rewards followers appropriately

Motivation Cluster:

- Leader inspires followers in appropriate ways
- Leader provides followers with incentives to excel
- Leader motivates followers through clarification of his or her expectations
- Leader motivates followers to action
- Leader motivates followers to use their creative skills
- Leader is able to galvanize a group to action
- Leader stimulates change when needed

Ethical Cluster:

- Leader applies consistent ethical standards to the job
- Leader encourages the ethical development of followers
- Leader influences followers through his or her personal behavior
- Leader conforms to a standard of what is right
- Leader seeks to build an ethical environment
- Leader helps followers conform to a standard of what is right and good
- Leader is a principled leader

Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire III (MCLQ-III)
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